

TOURISM IN NATIONAL PARKS:  
MANAGING A PARADOXICAL MANDATE

by

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This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other higher degree or graduate diploma in any tertiary institution, and, to the best of the candidate's knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except when due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read 'Ron Sutton', is written over a horizontal line.

Ron Sutton

## Abstract

This thesis deals with reconciling environmental protection and tourism in national parks. It asks, "What tourism is appropriate in national parks?" The objective is to develop an assessment framework to answer this question.

There is widespread contemporary discussion about the perceived economic benefits of tourism. Some argue that national parks should provide economic returns and job opportunities to the community. Consequently, tourism, particularly ecotourism, is seen as a promising economic use of national parks. At the same time, many people believe that national parks are important for environmental protection and preservation.

The history of national parks, the assumptions and values held about them, and the legislation establishing them, are examined to determine the roles and values of national parks today. The phenomenon of tourism is examined along with management responses to dealing with it in national parks. A confusion of purpose and the lack of a clear tourism assessment process are identified. The need for a framework to assess appropriate tourism in national parks is established and a new, legislative, policy, and implementation framework is proposed.

The framework sets out a clearly defined process, identifying the key components necessary for its application. It requires an explicit legislative definition of national parks, a statement of purpose in the formal gazettal of each park, the setting of goals for the future character of each park, the setting of goals and objectives for tourism in national parks, and development of strategies for achieving the tourism goals and objectives. The key strategy is the development of criteria for assessing tourism proposals for national parks.

To elaborate and test the framework, the substance of some of the key components of it is proposed. The framework is further tested, in a case study, by applying it to Maria Island National Park. The case study proposes a statement of purpose and future character goals for the park.

Tourism values and tourism opportunities for the park are identified. Limitations of the proposed framework are discussed and suggestions for further development are made.



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## Introduction

A frequent justification for establishing national parks is the tourism benefits that are supposed to follow. Tourism in parks, according to both the tourism industry and governments, has considerable growth potential. Conservation groups also assert the value of national parks for some forms of tourism. Yet national parks are widely seen as places for the special protection of significant and valued environments. The relationship between promotion and development of tourism in parks and the protection of the environment that gives them significance is a sometimes uneasy one. When there is a conflict between these values, which takes precedence? The problem facing the community and park managers is how to reconcile environmental protection and tourism in national parks. The appropriateness of tourism activities and development in parks needs assessment, but there are obvious problems with how this is handled at present.

In Tasmania, as elsewhere, tourism is seen as something of an economic saviour, providing income and jobs. The Tasmanian environment is promoted to attract tourists. The national parks are seen as a potential resource for generating tourism dollars. They are a public resource that the government can offer not only to attract tourists, but as the raw material for entrepreneurs to develop. Tourism, it is said, can be developed while protecting the environment, providing jobs, and generating economic wealth. Are these assertions true or do they conceal a less favourable picture? There is evidence of environmental and cultural damage caused by tourism elsewhere. At times, tourism developments are encouraged and propped up by subsidies of public funds, with little or no return to the community providing the subsidy. Outsiders frequently hold the skilled jobs, with locals receiving only casual, seasonal, low paid, and unskilled employment. Leakage of the economic wealth away from the local community and the host country is sometimes high.

On the other hand, national parks rely on public acceptance and support if they are to continue to exist. They are cultural artefacts that, if not valued, could be discarded. Visitors to parks, it is argued, go away

with a greater appreciation, and consequently become advocates for their protection. These visitors, or tourists, require transport, access, services, and facilities to make their visit possible. Their activities generate economic activity that can provide opportunities for the tourism industry to develop. People from widely different value positions identify the economic benefit to the community of tourism in national parks. Do they all mean the same thing? When it comes to the details, agreement is less apparent. Conservationists reject some aspects of tourism development, including facilities such as accommodation, kiosks and restaurants, as inappropriate in national parks. Developers, it is said, are deterred by what they see as the inevitable antagonism to whatever proposal they put up. They want to know what is acceptable. Conservation oriented ideas about appropriate tourism may be unrealistic in the competitive and fickle tourism market. Can the industry make a profit in these circumstances? Why are many tourism proposals for national parks viewed so suspiciously? Parks agencies are often unclear about what development is acceptable, or are accused of not really wanting tourism development. One reason is that tourism in parks is seen to compromise environmental protection and other park values.

These are the issues confronting park managers everywhere. This thesis focuses on the difficulties presented by the paradoxical mandate for national parks to provide for both tourism and environmental protection and preservation. Although the thesis ranges over international and national perspectives, the emphasis is on the situation in Tasmania. Park managers in Tasmania face the day to day task of assessing tourism proposals, and managing tourism activities in parks. Their actions are scrutinised by politicians and the general public. Constituencies with sometimes conflicting interests and assumptions regularly challenge the decisions they make. Although the challenges are often specific to a proposal and a locality, wider issues are involved. There is a lack of clear policy, based on mutually understood and agreed principles, for dealing with tourism in parks.

The objective of this thesis is to develop a legislative, policy and implementation framework for assessing appropriate tourism in national parks. Such a framework could provide State-wide policy

guidance for dealing with tourism in Tasmania's parks. In addition, the implementation processes it sets out should be useful for assessing specific tourism proposals. The framework should be of most use to park managers dealing with tourism in national parks. Because the framework makes clear the processes for assessment, it should also be useful to politicians, tourism developers, and the general public in clarifying debates about tourism development in parks.

The thesis makes two assumptions. One is that some degree of protection and preservation of the environment and biodiversity is necessary to sustain life on the planet. The other is that national parks are one of the many devices useful to achieve environmental protection. This assumption is not without its critics. Challenges to the concept of national parks come not just from resource extraction industries and some proponents of environmentally intrusive forms of recreation. There are also arguments that the "fortress" idea of reserves such as national parks is not an appropriate way to achieve environmental protection. Although the argument is examined briefly, it is not the subject of the thesis. A pragmatic stance is taken that national parks are likely to continue to exist in the foreseeable future. Consequently, the thesis examines how to deal with tourism issues in national parks that are or might be established.

The thesis methodology is as follows:

1. Identify the scope of the problem of tourism in parks. Establish the need for a framework and identify key issues that it should address.
  - Examine the historical, philosophical, and legislative basis of national parks to identify their role and values.
  - Review the phenomenon of tourism to establish the problems and opportunities that it presents in parks.
  - Examine existing management responses to tourism in parks to identify problems with current approaches.
2. Develop a new framework for assessing appropriate tourism in national parks.
  - Identify the necessary components of the framework in response to the problems and issues identified in the earlier steps.



- Elaborate and test the framework by formulating preliminary legislative amendments, goals and objectives, and implementation strategies for some of the key components contained in it.
3. Apply the framework through a case study.
- Further test the framework by developing preliminary proposals for Maria Island National Park for some of the key components of the framework.

Chapter 1 examines the history of national parks and the role that environmental protection and tourism played in their inception. The review shows a historical confusion of purpose, identifies the sometimes inconsistent assumptions made about national parks, and reveals a shift in the values attributed to them. It highlights the conflicting expectations of parks, and the consequent pressures upon them. This leads to the conclusion that assessing appropriate tourism in parks needs a framework which provides a clearer understanding and statement of first principles inherent in the national park concept. In Chapter 2, the issue of values is examined more closely by analysing current critical thought in environmental philosophy. Widely divergent value premises about the environment and national parks exist. These premises influence the way priorities for environmental protection and tourism in parks are perceived. The dominance of economic thinking, and the ways economic values influence the perception and use of national parks are included in the analysis. A clear statement of values is identified as an important consideration in assessing appropriate tourism in parks. Contemporary values for parks are proposed. The legislative basis for Australian national parks is covered in Chapter 3. A lack of definitional clarity in the legislation is revealed, as is a consequential ill defined purpose for each separate park. The lack of clarity in legislation compounds the same lack of clarity about the role and values of national parks identified in the first two chapters. It reinforces the need for a framework to guide assessment of appropriate tourism in parks. A legislative definition of a national park and a statement of purpose for each park is necessary in the framework.

Chapter 4 reviews and analyses the phenomenon of tourism and its characteristics which could impact upon national parks. It further establishes the need for a framework, and identifies key components of it. The chapter examines definitions of tourism, the behaviour of tourists, and the experiences they seek. Ecotourism as a model of appropriate tourism in national parks is discussed and the conclusion drawn that a more encompassing model of tourism is required. The interplay between the commercial priorities of the tourism industry and environmental protection is examined and some suggestions for a positive partnership between the two are presented. The chapter identifies that controls are necessary on the type of tourism activity and development provided in national parks. To provide the controls in a co-ordinated way, the need for an assessment framework, incorporating components which deal with tourism issues, is identified.

Chapter 5 identifies the major weaknesses of ad hoc decision making, "the tyranny of small decisions" as it is sometime called, in dealing with tourism in parks. There is a tendency to focus on management issues at the site level, applying solutions in the absence of policy guidelines. Short term decision making is common. The chapter reviews management responses, and a number of existing management approaches which rely on various frameworks for dealing with tourism in parks. Their strengths and weaknesses are assessed. The thesis argues that an assessment framework should be put in place but that it must ensure first principles are firmly established at the outset. A vision for each park should be established to protect its special character from incremental erosion.

In Chapter 6, a new, comprehensive framework for assessing appropriate tourism in national parks is developed. It sets out a clear process for judging the appropriateness of tourism proposals. The key components of the framework are identified. The framework proposes that an explicit definition of national parks be included in legislation, that a statement of purpose be gazetted for each park, and that goals for sustaining the environmental and recreational character of a park be identified. Development of goals and objectives for appropriate tourism in national parks, along with strategies to achieve these, is also proposed. It is argued in Chapter 6 that the principles and policies

establishing the role and values of parks, and the goals and objectives for tourism in parks, must be made explicit. The actual contents of these components of the framework depend on the values and premises adopted. Public and political discussion is required to establish what they will be. This is necessary to ensure wide acceptance and support by park managers, politicians, and the general public. Legislative amendment to establish a definition of a national park will require parliamentary support. Nevertheless, to test the framework, a national park definition, purposes and goals for parks, and goals and objectives for tourism, are proposed. These are all key components of the framework. The proposals for the form they should take are derived from analysis of the issues identified earlier in the thesis, but without the benefit of necessary public consultation. Consequently, the examples in the thesis should be viewed as preliminary. One of the key implementation strategies identified in the framework is the development of a series of criteria for assessing tourism proposals for parks. Chapter 7 sets out preliminary proposals for these criteria.

To further test the framework, a case study of Maria Island National Park is undertaken. As noted above, public scrutiny and acceptance is necessary to establish goals for the future of a park. The consultation needed to reach a public acceptance of goals was beyond the scope of this thesis. Consequently, the case study must be considered a preliminary application of the framework. Chapter 8 briefly describes the park and uses a previously released draft management plan to identify the values ascribed to it. A statement of purpose for the park is proposed, as are sustainable environmental and recreational character goals. A preliminary formulation of tourism values and opportunities on Maria Island is developed.

A summary and concluding comments on the usefulness of the framework are given in Chapter 9. Difficulties in refining the framework and determining the principles and policies it should incorporate are identified. Recommendations for further development are made.

# Chapter 1 National Parks - Changing Perceptions and Confusion of Purposes

The relatively short history of national parks dates from the latter half of the nineteenth century. That history highlights how influential the cultural and geographic origins of the national park idea have been. It also helps explain the way national parks are perceived and managed today. By reviewing the origins of national parks, the assumptions and values underlying their establishment, and the pressures upon them, a clearer picture of the problems faced in dealing with tourism in national parks emerges. Conflicting expectations are held about parks, and their role is often unclear. Without a clearer understanding and an explicit statement of their role, assessing appropriate tourism in parks can only be an ad hoc process. Instead, a framework which establishes the context in which tourism assessment occurs is necessary.

## 1.1 A Brief Chronology

The US artist-explorer George Catlin is attributed with first using the term "national park" in 1832 (Machlis & Tichnell, 1985). The world's first national park, Yellowstone National Park, was declared in the United States in 1872. There is some dispute about who conceived and initiated the idea for Yellowstone. The popular account, repeated by Lusigi (1978) and Thompson (1986), is that a Montana attorney named Cornelius Hedges, a member of a party who explored the area, proposed that the group of explorers work for the preservation of the area under government protection. However, Glick (1991) disputes this and asserts that an agent for the Northern Pacific Railroad Company suggested that Congress reserve the Great Geyser Basin (Yellowstone) as a park. Glick further notes that the railroad company then went on to provide the principal means of access to the park and became the first concessionaire providing tourist services in Yellowstone. Machlis & Tichnell (1985) identify a third possible originator of the idea for the first national park in the world. They quote from a two volume work by George Catlin titled Illustrations of the Manners, Customs and Conditions of the North American Indians published in 1851. In this, Catlin argued for the establishment of Yellowstone National Park,

calling for 'a nation's park, containing man and beast, in all the wild and freshness of their nature's beauty'.

In the United States, the establishment of the Adirondacks National Park in 1885 and Yosemite National Park in 1890 followed Yellowstone. To the north, Canada established Banff as its first park in 1885. In Australia, The National Park (later Royal National Park) near Sydney, was declared in 1879, thus becoming the second national park in the world. New South Wales next added Ku-ring-gai Chase National Park in 1894 (Thompson, 1986).

Tasmania passed advanced legislation for scenic reserves and fauna sanctuaries quite early (Mosley, 1968), and, in 1915, established the Scenery Preservation Board, the first central managing authority for parks and reserves in Australia (Griffiths, 1991). Despite this, Tasmania was the last Australian State to declare a national park (Hall, 1988). The first Tasmanian parks, Mt Field National Park and Freycinet National Park, were finally gazetted in 1916.

South Australia had the distinction of establishing Australia's second national park when the *National Park Act* 1891 established a park at Belair 'as a national recreation and pleasure ground' (Mosley, 1968: 28). Mosley also draws attention to the quaintly named South Australian *National Pleasure Resorts Act* 1914 that provided for establishment of national pleasure resorts under the control of the State tourism authority. By special Act, Victoria established the Tower Hill National Park (now a wildlife reserve) in 1892. In 1896, Victoria reserved land at Wilson's Promontory for national park purposes using Crown land legislation. Under the *State Forests and National Parks Act* 1906, Queensland proclaimed its first national park in 1908 at Witches Falls, Tamborine Mountain (Mosley, 1968). Frawley (1988) asserts that, apart from the Tasmanian *Scenery Preservation Act* 1915 that established the Scenery Preservation Board, the Queensland Act of 1906 was the most significant in the early history of Australia's national parks. It was the first in Australia to bring parks under the umbrella of one Act.

Thereafter followed a 40 year lull, until two waves of legislative activity began in the 1950s (Frawley, 1988). The first set up general legislation in

some States in the late 1950s and early 1960s. Beginning with the New South Wales *National Parks and Wildlife Act* 1967, most States remodelled their legislation and administration in the 1970s. Chapter 3 reviews contemporary Australian national park legislation in detail.

In other parts of the world, national parks generally came much later than in the United States, Canada, and Australia. In Africa, game reserves, first established by Germany in 1896, and later by Britain, were the forerunners of national parks. It was not until 1946 that Kenya's first national park was gazetted (Lusigi, 1978). Serengeti National Park in Tanzania was reserved in 1948 (Lucas, 1992). Switzerland declared its first national park in the Engadine Alps in 1914. It was much later that the State of Bavaria established Germany's first national park in 1969 in Bayerischer Wald. The supporting legislation was not passed until 1973. Federal German recognition of the national park concept did not occur until 1976 when the government passed a law on nature conservation (Lusigi, 1978). Great Britain passed the *National Parks and Access to Countryside Act* in 1949. Unlike the original US model, national parks in Britain cover multiple purpose land uses, including large areas of private land (MacEwen & MacEwen, 1982).

## 1.2 The Early Motives for Establishment of Parks

Conservation for its own sake, despite having its supporters, was a minor theme in the political arguments put for declaring the first national parks. In the United States during the 1850s, Thoreau had called for protection of some areas from the destructive forces of civilisation (Lusigi, 1978). Other proponents of the early US national parks took a similar line. Influenced by Thoreau and Emerson, John Muir saw value in protecting areas for reasons echoed by today's "ecocentric" conservationists. However, these values were not widely shared, even by early supporters of the park proposals. Recreation, tourism and, at times, game or water catchment protection were the principal arguments that swayed politicians in favour of national parks. Even Muir couched his argument for conservation in 'the acceptable vernacular of human use' (Fox, 1981: 60), arguing, for example, to protect tree belts on mountain slopes for their watershed functions in preventing desertification.

As a consequence, the earliest national parks were not declared for their nature conservation values per se but principally because of their value for public enjoyment and recreation, 'a very anthropocentrically defined national park idea', according to Nash (1990: 35). In part, parks were seen as a foil to the overcrowded, polluted and disease prone cities. This was particularly the case in Australia where parks in New South Wales, South Australia and Western Australia were really "urban parks" set up in the "Arcadian" tradition of park making (Frawley, 1988). This contrasts with the "Romantic" tradition that led to the establishment of Yellowstone and similar parks in the United States. Yet, in Tasmania, other themes were invoked. The Tasmanian Tourist Association wrote to the Premier in 1900 seeking the reservation of what is now Freycinet National Park for the preservation of Tasmanian mammals and flora (Parks and Wildlife Service, 1993). In 1903, James Barrett wrote:

With the progress of settlement in Tasmania, as elsewhere, the indigenous plant and animal life of the country is almost certain to be largely destroyed, and it seems desirable that a small portion of the country should be reserved for their perpetuation. Such reservation may be of importance directly or indirectly to all classes of the community, to men of science, tourists, in some instances to the commercial world, and lastly, to those who are simply intelligently curious (Parks and Wildlife Service, 1993).

In 1905, a reserve was established on the Freycinet peninsula under the *Game Protection Act 1905*.

Griffiths (1991) notes that Nash identified "scenic nationalism" as an underlying theme in the creation of parks in the United States. Hall (1988) refers to US parks being national monuments and expressions of American independence. Similarly, MacEwen & MacEwen (1982) assert that the origin of US parks lay in a search for national identity based partly on glorification of the scenic wonders discovered through the exploration and conquest of the west. Generally, these themes of nationalism and the "Romantic" tradition occurred somewhat later in Australia (Frawley, 1988). The establishment of Lamington National Park in Queensland in 1915 reflected the shift in emphasis to preserving natural features rather than developing "improvements" in the urban park making tradition (See 1.4).

Nash argues that although the early national park movement in the United States wanted to keep parts of the natural world unimpaired (1990), this was to provide human pleasure, not for conservation in its own right. For example, the Yellowstone Act of 1872 established 'a public park or pleasuring-ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people,' while at the same time specifying retention of 'the natural curiosities or wonders in their natural condition' (Darling & Eichhorn, 1969: 17). Even so, interference with natural processes was common place, and predators were regularly killed in US parks until 1936 (Nash, 1990). Manipulation of predators in reserves was also assumed reasonable in Africa. When Germany declared East Africa's first game reserve in 1896, the British Colonial Office was critical because 'even in the game reserves it would be necessary to permit the shooting of carnivores, otherwise the antelopes would merely be preserved for the benefit of the lions and tigers' (Lusigi, 1978: 38).

For all the romanticism and scenic nationalism that influenced the early development of national parks, there was a much more hard nosed reality. Hall (1988: 442) supports Runte's (1979) hypothesis that national parks were only established on "worthless lands" where 'an abundance of scenery had to be matched by an absence of exploitable wealth'. He suggests that this debunks the myth that there was idealism and altruism underlying the creation of American national parks. Giving some substance to Hall's assertions, it was the aptly named *Wastelands Act* 1863 that was used in 1885 to establish a Falls Reserve around Russell Falls in what is now Mt Field National Park in Tasmania. Yet, even if the lands were seen as worthless for many purposes, they were usually seen as valuable for tourism.

Other types of reserves, such as the wildlife refuge system first established in the United States in 1892 (Nash, 1990), were reserved to protect wildlife rather than provide for human recreation. Consequently, from very early in the history of parks, a variety of reserve types, often with purposes overlapping those of national parks, began to proliferate. The variety has continued to grow and led to confusion in the public mind. The distinctions between reserve categories are often not all that clear. Reserves now range from nature reserves created primarily for protection of species, national parks



primarily for conservation but with their additional emphasis on human pleasure and recreation, protected landscapes that provide for both human settlement and conservation, to recreation reserves where conservation is a background concern. National and international categories of reserves identify national parks with the conservation end of the reserve spectrum (Lucas, 1992), a view generally shared in the public mind (refer also to Chapter 3).

While there is some dispute about the role of the railroad lobby in the establishment of Yellowstone, the railroad companies were generally leading advocates of national parks in the US (Hall, 1988). Chase (1987) notes the unusual political alliance between railroads and other supporters of national parks, with the railroads seeing parks as good for business. It is also clear that in Canada the earliest national parks were reserved as a result of lobbying to ensure that the Canadian Pacific Railway (CPR) could profit from tourism development in scenic areas traversed by the railway. The intention was to 'control development in the mountain valleys, to protect the scenery from squatting, and enable the CPR to monopolise development' (Bella, 1987: 10). It was the discovery of hot springs on the CPR route that led to the creation of Banff National Park. The then Prime Minister of Canada, Sir John A. MacDonald (quoted in Bella, 1987: 14), said after visiting the area:

I do not suppose in any portion of the world there can be found a spot, taken all together, which combines so many attractions and which promises in as great degree not only large pecuniary advantages to the Dominion, but much prestige to the whole country by attracting the population, not only of this continent, but of Europe, to this place. It has all the qualifications necessary to make it a great place of resort.

Drawing an interesting parallel with the United States and Canada, Hall (1988) identifies the economic relationship with the railways in the early establishment of national parks in most Australian States. For example, the Derwent Valley Railway received revenue from an increase in passengers visiting Mt Field National Park in Tasmania.

In eastern Africa, the establishment of parks and reserves centred on wildlife, both for game and as a tourist attraction. Land was also set aside on the premise that it was not suitable for development (Lusigi, 1978), reflecting a theme in the establishment of parks in the United

States and Australia. Not surprisingly, the colonial administrators in Africa held many of the same value perceptions that applied in the United States and Australia.

### 1.3 Underlying Assumptions in the National Park Concept

European settlers established the national parks in North America and Australia. These settlers were in the process of displacing the native people, usually with little consideration for their values and customs, especially their understanding and management of the land. Callicott (undated: 18) criticises the proposition put by Nash that North America was a 'wilderness of continental dimensions' when the pilgrims arrived on the Mayflower. He notes continuing complaints by the people of the "First Nations" that the concept of wilderness is racist. Both Callicott and Chase (1987) argue that the North American continent was a landscape managed and altered by the indigenous people, principally using fire. The point they make is that a human influenced landscape already existed, albeit different from the one with which the new settlers were familiar. Similarly, Bridgewater (1993) argues that all landscapes in Australia are to some extent anthropogenic. Griffiths (1991) also suggests that there are no non-human landscapes in Australia. Aborigines inhabited the land and modified it, mainly using fire technology. Yet, the eurocentric perspective of some conservationists has been that the Australian landscapes are untouched and pristine. Griffiths says (1991: 24) that 'Aborigines are thereby rendered invisible as agents in the landscape. Is this terra nullius in another form?'

Referring to the national parks that make up the Tasmanian Wilderness World Heritage Area, Flanagan (1992) disputes the 'erroneous view unsupported by the historical record' that the area is untouched by humans. However, Russell (1993), quoting from Cronon (1983: 12), suggests that the broader conservation movement has come to understand that the history of the Australian landscape is not 'one with and one without a human influence,' but 'two human ways of living, two ways of belonging to an ecosystem'. For conservationists, the Aboriginal way of belonging is now recognised and considered

environmentally acceptable. They often consider the more recent European way of belonging to be environmentally questionable.

While there may be a growing awareness amongst modern conservationists of Aboriginal influence, it was not the case when national parks were first being established. To European colonialists, the signs of European human activity in their own landscapes were obvious, but they could not readily perceive the hand of the indigenous peoples in the landscapes of the new world. In Australia, the modern conservationists' somewhat belated recognition of indigenous culture has not extended so readily to signs of the culture of the recent European arrivals. Many of the cultural practices of the European so-called "traditional users" are not seen to be in harmony with, and respectful of, the land. While European cultural sites may be recognised, if sometimes only as representative of the environmental insensitivity of the creators, the continuation of the cultural practices that created them is usually rejected. There are sometimes (but not always) good reasons for this in national parks, where contemporary values emphasise conservation priorities, and scientific evidence demonstrates environmental damage. Griffiths (1991) acknowledges that historical and cultural arguments used by "traditional users" in environmental debates are sometimes opportunistic, indiscriminate, irrational and unscientific. On the other hand, Griffiths argues, denial of European history and its cultural and social dimension is inconsistent in determining the values of national parks. It is also likely to be self defeating (Machlis & Tichnell, 1985).

In Europe, areas set aside as national parks have tended to be located in mountainous areas where settlement and development have been constrained, thus leaving the land in a somewhat more "natural" state. As Lusigi (1978) points out, it was difficult to even find "undisturbed" land with striking features and scenery that fitted the US model. To European eyes, land free of signs of European settlement was the "natural" land which settlers in the new world had found in such apparent abundance.

In Africa, the colonial rulers generally showed little understanding or respect for the people and their culture. Lusigi (1978: 59) quotes Sir

Charles Elliot, Commissioner for the East African Protectorate from 1900-1905, writing that Europeans in Africa were not 'destroying an old or interesting system but simply introducing order into a blank, uninteresting, brutal barbarism'. When national parks were established in developing countries, they were often located in remote areas, then relatively safe from the pressures of European mass tourism (Machlis & Tichnell, 1985). However, local population pressures, drought, land degradation, and land alienation have placed enormous strains on the subsistence economies surrounding or, in some cases, within these national parks (Lucas, 1992). The land areas declared as parks often have a significant local socio-economic role (Machlis & Tichnell, 1985). They are subject to competing values now that national park based tourism is increasingly pursued by national governments in search of foreign exchange. In some parks in Africa, traditional activities and lifestyles have been excluded to meet conservation and international tourism objectives. Where this has not provided alternative and obvious local benefit, hostility to the national park idea is strong (Lusigi, 1978). Similar hostility can be observed in isolated communities in western Tasmania. There, parks have been declared which exclude future development of the resource extraction industries upon which these communities relied for many years. While the decline in these industries cannot be blamed on the declaration of national parks, the local communities associate the two.

Apart from the premise that land set aside is "natural" and free of human interference, there are two closely related and fundamental assumptions inherent in the national park concept. One is that some protection of the environment is necessary. This thesis takes that assumption as given, although it discussed in Chapter 2. The second assumption is that reserving areas of land from general development and human use is an effective way to protect the environment and serve conservation purposes. There are critics of these assumptions, particularly the second.

Griffiths (1991) suggests that the boundaries between nature and culture should be transcended by adopting a melting pot approach to conservation. He argues that national parks are not "natural" areas and that the most important conservation issues are the "brown"

issues such as air pollution, soil erosion, and global warming. This is a rejection of the pluralistic, mosaic model of conservation inherent in the national park reserve system. Griffiths contends that parks cannot be maintained as islands of pristine environments set in a sea of developed lands, where ecological processes continue free of interference. This is an ultimately futile, losing conservation strategy (Callicott, undated). Furthermore, it is difficult to achieve conservation of species (for example, the wolf or the grizzly bear) by relying on areas protected within the usually arbitrary boundaries of national parks (Chase, 1987; Australian National Parks and Wildlife Service, 1990). Machlis and Tichnell (1985: 96) also identify a political problem with the approach.

The romantic vision of parks as protected paradises is widespread and, ironically, may threaten the permanence of national parks. This purely preservationist approach, where parks are considered "fortresses" under siege, invincible or soon eradicated, carries great political risks. It requires an essentially militaristic defence strategy and will almost always heighten conflict.

The position taken here is not to develop a critique of the transposed European way of relating and interacting with the Australian landscape. Rather, it is to accept that, for the foreseeable future, national parks will be special places, less altered and hence contrasting with the new and pervasive landscapes of modern urban, industrial, and agricultural societies. They reflect, to varying degree, the state of the environment at the time of European arrival. Griffith's concern about the denial of human history in national parks is sometimes evident. However, while the past, European or otherwise, cannot be denied, it does not necessarily need to be repeated.

The serious danger of the melting pot approach is an homogenisation of landscape, environmental qualities, and conservation values to the lowest common denominator. Parks serve as a holding operation against such tendencies and most conservationists recognise the limitations of reserves in achieving their goals for the environment as a whole (Russell, 1993). National parks cannot escape impacts like air pollution, acid rain, or ozone depletion but they provide an environmental baseline, and remain a linchpin in building a wider conservation ethic. Species conservation is now generally viewed in a

context that extends well beyond national parks and other reserves, and the "brown" conservation issues are firmly on the conservationist agenda (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987).

## 1.4 Shifting Values

Mosley (1968) argues that national parks in Australia were created piecemeal, with the focus on areas of natural scenery selected for their recreational interest. There has, however, been a shift of priorities over time which Griffiths (1991) traces from the earliest setting aside of "wastelands" of little economic value, through a concentration on scenic places or places of recreation for nearby urban dwellers, to a contemporary priority of reserving areas of biological importance.

Early perceptions of the values of national parks in Australia echoed those held in the United States, although the "urban park" approach of the very first Australian parks owed more to the British parks movement than to the US model (Frawley, 1988). Nevertheless, the emphasis on parks for people, for recreation and tourism, was shared. Hall (1988) argues that scientific reasons for preservation of flora and fauna played little part in the establishment of early Australian parks. The National Park (later Royal National Park) near Sydney was intended to provide for the health of Sydney's workers rather than provide environmental protection (Hall, 1988). The Board of Trustees for Royal National Park did not preserve flora and fauna as one of their main aims, but set out to clear undergrowth to give a more "park-like" appearance and introduced exotic animals such as deer (Webster, 1979). The establishment of plants and animals from "home" reflected the influence of the acclimatisation societies who sought to correct 'the deficiencies of Australian nature' (Frawley, 1988: 402). Tennis courts, ovals, picnic areas and pavilions were provided (Ovington, 1979). While there was a minority view more concerned with conservation (Mercer, 1991), this usually revolved around the utilitarian argument of "wise use" (Frawley, 1988).

In the early part of the twentieth century, the influence of what Frawley (1988: 408) refers to as 'the favourable aesthetic responses to the landscape associated with Romanticism' began to shift the Australian

view of national parks closer to that of the United States. Furthermore, the influences of science were becoming more prominent in shifting perceptions of national parks. Initially, various field naturalists' organisations played a key role (Frawley, 1988). By the early 1930s, Myles Dunphy and others established The National Parks and Primitive Areas Council in NSW. Their attitudes are reflected in their "Objects and Scope of Work" set out in Figure 1.

During the twentieth century, but particularly since the Second World War, an increasing public concern in Australia for protection of the environment has led many in the community to view national parks as one of the highest forms of environmental protection that can be bestowed. This perception of national parks holds recreation and human benefit to be a less significant purpose of national parks. As Hall (1988: 450) says, 'in the age of ecology, national parks and reserves are seen as having far greater value than just tourist destinations, although tourism is still regarded by many as an integral component of the park concept.'

In the 1960s, the conservation movement began to challenge the "wise use" approach that had developed earlier in the century, arguing for a new ethic not based on utilitarianism (Frawley, 1988). Much greater prominence was given to the wilderness preservation concept. This shift in values has been at the heart of many recent debates about the use of national parks. In Chapter 2, contemporary trends in environmental philosophy that relate to national parks are examined more closely.

It was also in the post war period that the values of national parks for scientific purposes came to their contemporary prominence. In recent times, scientific values have sometimes been used as a major justification for some conservation campaigns (Frawley, 1988). Many national parks agencies now set out to reserve representative examples of ecological communities (Australian National Parks and Wildlife Service, 1990). Supported by the scientific community, a dominant contemporary theme in valuing reserved areas such as national parks is their role in protecting biodiversity (Kelly and Robson, 1993). At the same time, Frawley notes, conservationists have been less willing to

**Figure 1      1930s Objectives of the National Parks and Primitive Areas Council**      Source: Thompson (ed), 1986: Myles Dunphy Selected Writings

**NATIONAL PARKS AND PRIMITIVE AREAS COUNCIL**  
**NEW SOUTH WALES**

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**Slogan : Progress with Conservation**

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**OBJECTS AND SCOPE OF WORK**

1. To locate and plan areas peculiarly suitable for national parks, state parks, primitive area reserves, camping and water reserves, national monuments, tourist developmental areas and necessary scenic tracks, and to promulgate schemes for the establishment of these national necessities.

2. To advocate the proper importance and leading status of national parks and primitive area reserves, under central control, as distinct from shire and municipal parks, state forests, forest reserves, national forests and flora reserves, and to oppose the usurpation and use of the term "national park" for shire and municipal parks.

3. To advocate the planned division of national parks into primitive areas and tourist developmental areas (without actual boundaries) for the effective, just and lasting satisfaction of all interests, including minority interests.

4. In the light of present and future needs of the State and Nation, to show that general conservation of the natural adjuncts and amenities of the land is a necessity and will permit no delay. To show that constructive work in conservation will continue to be unduly difficult until the general public becomes sufficiently educated to the importance of the matter; or until Government creates a Commission or Department for the effective and permanent protection of selected areas suitable for the differing purposes named in Clause 1. So that headway can be made against the operations of commercial interests and the so-called "march of progress", in order to advance real progress accompanied by conservation.

5. To advocate the protection of existing tracks, paths and trails in use, and tracks having definite scenic and historic interests and values, particularly in the face of projected new motor highways that will have little or no value as regards land productivity. To advocate the making of paths and bridle tracks more or less parallel to existing highways for the use, comfort and safety of pedestrians and horsemen.

6. To organise and direct agitation for the inexpensive reservation of natural, scenic bushland for wild-life preservation and bushland recreation; and to co-operate with other organizations in conservation and regional planning matters.

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"KRAWARREE," 74 WORONORA PDE  
OATLEY

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leave decision making to the "experts", whether scientific or bureaucratic, demanding public involvement in the process. These new perceptions, backed by political action by conservationist groups, have resulted in a considerable increase in the number and area of national parks declared in Australia, particularly since the 1960s (Frawley, 1988).

Despite the growing prominence and public acceptance of a national park ethic of environmental protection, there is a common view that "parks are for people", however carefully they must be treated. Just how carefully is of course open to interpretation. The various States' Acts relating to national parks in Australia, reviewed in Chapter 3, show that this confusion of purpose between utilitarian purposes and a primary emphasis on environmental protection and preservation is entrenched. Mosley (1968) noted that Australian parks authorities did not have precise policies on acceptable land uses, and how to reconcile incompatible objectives. Darling and Eichhorn (1969: 26) express an 'uncomfortable impression that policy is philosophically unsure' in the United States. As Chapter 3 details, little has changed in a legislative sense in most jurisdictions in Australia.

## **1.5 Pressures for Development, Impacts of Development**

Leslie Bella's (1987) book Parks for Profit opens with a statement of the assumption that national parks are primarily for preservation of natural values. Yet, from the 1850s onward in Australia, 'although a number of intermittent preservationist themes can be recognised, utilitarian conservation arguments generally prevailed. Thus the advocacy of national parks invariably made reference to the tourist value of such areas' (Mercer, 1991: 32).

Furthermore, developers, some recreation groups such as hunters, horse riders and off-road vehicle users, foresters, and miners have all at different times railed against the "locking up" of land for national parks and other reserves (Hall, 1988). Hall argues that forestry, mining, and power generating industries see no problem with operating in national parks or revoking areas of parks for their industry purposes. This, he says, highlights the perception of national parks as "worthless

lands" and is a 'contemporary restatement of the value of national parks' (1988: 453). His thesis is that a national park is land viewed as worthless for development purposes. Whenever a development purpose or economic value can be identified, the land is, by definition, no longer necessarily suitable as a national park. Opponents of this view can be labelled "preservationists" who unreasonably block orderly and sensible progress (Livingston, 1981). In contrast, responsible "conservationists" understand that sensible use of resources can go hand in hand with protection of environmental values. As Livingston (1981: 16) puts it, 'preservation smells of reaction, retrogression, primitivism, and worse, while environmental assessment, regional planning, ecological development, and all the other appurtenances of the techno-machine are permitted, through "conservation", to assume their proper heroic roles.'

In Canada, history shows that tourist development was a fundamental rationale for declaring parks. Harkin, the Canadian Parks Commissioner, said in 1911 that selling scenery was like selling any other natural resource, with the added benefit that it could be sold repeatedly. Harkin saw parks in terms of profitability, even calculating the dollar value of an acre of parkland (Bella, 1987). The corollary, as Bella points out, was, and is, that national parks are vulnerable and their boundaries erodible whenever other resource development is more profitable. As she says (1987: 108), 'the only defence of national parks was an economic one based on increased tourism'. Tourism provided the parks with a "defence mechanism", which gave parks an economic value (Hall, 1988). This has proved a valuable weapon in arguing for more parks.

The economic benefits of tourism in national parks have been asserted throughout their history. Now, with continuing high unemployment in Australia, governments are even more interested in ways of generating revenue and jobs from parks. This revenue comes not just by introducing entry fees, but often by privatising public assets and encouraging private investors and commercial developments into the parks (Bella, 1987). However, the risks to park values are real. The economic pressures on national parks for commercial development can be problematic for maintaining environmental values (See Chapter

4). The quality of visitor experiences is also at risk. For example, in parks such as Yosemite in the United States, the result of overdevelopment has been near ruin of the values for which people came to visit Yosemite Valley (Glick, 1991). There is a trend away from commercialisation in the United States. Because of the serious problems that emerged, there are now widespread challenges to concession arrangements (Mercer, 1991). Consequently, what Glick (1991) terms "blatant commercialisation" in US parks is on the wane.

In Australia 'secret dealings between State government officials have always been a feature of coastal resort development and land speculation in Australia' (Mercer, 1991: 146). National parks have been targets of this development speculation. To a developer, national parks are potentially prime development sites and some of the notorious Queensland deals have been connected with development in national parks. Craik (1991: 84) writes of the 'tendency for tourist development to privatise previously public land, resources and access'. Most pronounced in Queensland in the 1970s and 1980s, this phenomenon can be observed in all States. While the excesses of commercialism can threaten park values, recreation and tourism per se place many pressures on the parks that cannot be attributed to commercial involvement.

There has been a shift in values towards environmental protection purposes for national parks but the purpose of tourism and recreation remains. This leads to what Stankey (1989: 11) refers to as the 'fundamental paradox of the use and preservation dilemma'. Most legislation setting up national parks entrenches this dilemma by promoting both preservation and use, at times in the same sentence. Darling and Eichhorn (1969) point to the confusion in distinguishing between a recreational facility and a national park. Reflecting the confusion, Tom McMillan, a Canadian Minister responsible for national parks in the 1980s, said that 'the national parks are a major tourist attraction and parks policy is tourism policy. Too often parks policy proceeds in the ends of conservation and the environment' (quoted in Bella, 1987: 151).

More use may lead to greater support for national parks but at the same time threaten the long term sustainability of the natural systems contained and supposedly protected within the parks. It is concluded here that while threats to the values of national parks from development pressures are very real, development of tourism in national park may be beneficial. To be protected and valued, parks must have a supportive constituency in the community. Some argue that only by visiting and appreciating the values of the parks first hand will a sufficiently large and committed constituency be developed to defend parks (Hill, 1992; Chase, 1987; Sanson, 1992).

Many of the tourism issues that concern park managers arise from the number of visitors and their environmental impacts. Providing a range of activities and facilities that are appropriate is also a management issue. Often these issues are viewed in a site specific way.

Some proponents of a laissez faire approach to park management in Britain assert 'not only that freedom is what the countryside is about but that this freedom includes freedom to walk places bare and to overcrowd the most popular viewpoints, if that is what people want' (MacEwen & MacEwen, 1982: 94). This is not a view widely held by observers looking at the collective impacts of users. However, for the individual users, their role in creating cumulative impacts may not be obvious. Thus there is a superficial attraction in the freedom to do as one pleases. Garrett Hardin (1968: 1238) coined the term "the tragedy of the commons" to describe the phenomenon. He says:

The national parks present another instance of the working out of the tragedy of the commons. At present, they are open to all, without limit. The parks themselves are limited in extent - there is only one Yosemite valley - whereas population seems to grow without limit. The values that visitors seek in the parks are steadily eroded. Plainly, we must soon cease to treat the parks as commons or they will be of no value to anyone.

In many cases, nothing has occurred to avert the "tragedy" that Hardin warned against a quarter of a century ago. Other writers also identify the need to deal with the limited resource base of natural areas such as national parks, and rising demand (Buckley & Pannell, 1990). As early as the 1960s, Clawson and Knetsch (1966) warned of the need to establish and enforce ceilings on use of popular areas, in much the

same way as there are controls on timber harvesting rates. Zell (1991) warns of impending saturation in Australia. The idea of a limit to development growth in certain areas must be given serious consideration (Figgis, 1993). Darling and Eichhorn (1969) argue that what was permissible in the past needs more careful control or elimination now that visitor numbers and demands have grown. They draw the analogy of a concert hall, arguing that a national park must post a "house full" sign long before it reaches standing room only. They also support the idea of certain types of behaviour being expected in much the same way as in art galleries and museums. Minimal impact bushwalking and other forms of environmentally careful behaviour fall into this category. However, large numbers of visitors remain a threat to nature (Chase, 1987). Even with good behaviour, the skilled woodcraft of the early explorers in the United States is no longer ecologically appropriate when practiced by large numbers of people. Chase applies the same argument to more contemporary "minimal impact" walking and camping approaches. Furthermore, in the wider sense, minimal impact camping may not be especially "ecological". 'Using highly processed metal from Sweden, plastic from France, or food from San Francisco, and burning fossil fuel from Saudi Arabia (is), environmentally speaking, robbing Peter to pay Paul' (Chase, 1987: 333).

Necessary limits are too frequently already being exceeded, so management actions are usually reactive, stopping gaps and trying to repair the damage that has already occurred (Darling and Eichhorn, 1969). The results include damage to vegetation, erosion and soil compaction, pollution of rivers, streams and groundwaters, and interference with the hydrological cycle (ESD Working Groups, 1991). Other impacts result from waste and litter, sewage disposal, traffic noise and pollution, disturbance of wildlife and the introduction of exotic species, destruction of scenic and wilderness values, and vandalism. These effects can cause much more than localised damage and affect not only the natural environment but the visitor's experience. Burns and Associates (1989) identify three categories of sources of tourism impacts on the natural environment:

- transport and travel;
- accommodation; and

- recreational activities.

They also categorise impacts on the human environment as impacts on:

- archaeological sites and materials;
- cultural rules and mores;
- local community resources; and
- visitor experiences.

The problems are magnified when the most desirable locations from a visitor's point of view are also particularly sensitive environments (ESD Working Groups, 1991). In part, the problem is historic. When sites for visitor use were first identified and developed, the pressure of visitor numbers was limited and no-one anticipated that so many tourists would eventually come to the parks. 'Owing to the inertia inherent in the existing development centres and again to budgetary constraints, facility expansion through the years almost always took place at those centres that were established early in the parks' (Lusigi, 1978: 89).

The conclusion drawn here is that the problem is complex, requiring state-wide policies combined with innovative approaches flexible enough to respond to local circumstances. The challenge is to match numbers of visitors and types of uses with the rarity, fragility, and significance of the national park environment. It is also to balance numbers and types of visitors and their activities against each other. Too frequently, visitor areas are poorly planned, ad hoc amalgams of visitor and management facilities in a variety of styles, visual quality and state of repair, spread indiscriminately throughout a site. Visitor arrival areas at Freycinet National Park and at Cynthia Bay in the Cradle Mountain - Lake St Clair National Park evidence this. Often, attempts to rationalise site development founders on undue prominence being given to the pre-existing uses and disposition of facilities. Concerns about the capital investment already made, or the established expectations of managers and users, are the usual reasons.

## 1.6 Conclusions

The review of the origins of national parks and the assumptions on which they are based, gives an insight into the confused and contradictory way national parks are perceived and managed today. It highlights the need to restate their meaning and purpose. From their inception, the principal value of national parks was recreation and tourism. Usually for scenic reasons, significant natural and, in some cases, cultural features were protected. In more recent times the values of parks have widened to include and emphasise scientific values, and environmental protection and preservation as a value in its own right. The literature suggests a shift in community values from parks as pleasant "natural" or scenic places for people, to parks as places principally for environmental protection which people may also visit. For some, parks have become places where the "rights" of nature are allowed free reign.

The environmental protection role of national parks has clearly become more significant in contemporary thinking, but acceptance of the role of the parks for recreation and tourism, within the constraints of protection, remains. Parks are seen to have the potential to generate economic benefit, principally through tourism uses. For some, they are unrealised, and wasted, development opportunities. The conclusion drawn here is that national parks should be established principally for environmental protection and preservation. Tourism, while important, should be seen as a subsidiary value, dependent on environmental protection to sustain it.

## Chapter 2 - Different Values, Different Priorities for Parks

### 2.1 Introduction

Why ought man to value himself as more than an infinitely small composing unit of the one great unit of creation? The universe would be incomplete without man: but it would also be incomplete without the smallest transmicroscopic creature that dwells beyond our conceitful eyes and knowledge. (John Muir)

The way people value national parks holds a key to understanding the difficulties encountered in assessing appropriate tourism in national parks. This chapter examines the values attributed to parks and how these influence the priorities people have for tourism in parks.

Contemporary thinking about conservation and the environment is quite different from the days when the early national parks were established and views like John Muir's were uncommon. In particular, some conservationists are challenging what were, until recently, generally held assumptions about the human/nature relationship. A key element of the debate focuses on the way humans view the value of nature. For many people in industrial and post industrial societies, nature has value only in as much as it is of use to humans, thereby giving nature "instrumental" or "utility" value. However, some environmentalists argue that, irrespective of usefulness to humans, nature has value in its own right; an "intrinsic" value and right to exist. While the debate is not specific to national parks, it has profound implications for how national parks are viewed. It challenges many of the assumptions which people make about the uses of national parks.

A process of shifting the boundaries of the ethical community, redefining who is worthy of ethical consideration, can be traced throughout history. This process has implications for how the human/nature relationship is viewed. Over time, societies have expanded the ethical community so that slavery, for example, is no longer generally considered acceptable. However, cultures and societies continue to exclude fellow human beings from their moral sphere, as "ethnic cleansing" demonstrates. It is not surprising that even for



people who include all of humanity within the ethical community, nature, or much of it, does not make the ethical grade. In addition, until recently, ethical eligibility was determined solely in relation to human interests. Now some environmental philosophers speak of values that are not dependent on human interests for their moral standing. At issue are two interrelated matters. Firstly, how wide should the ethical net be cast and, secondly, is moral standing dependent on a premise of human interest?

## 2.2 The Ethical Community

Most contemporary environmentalists promote the extension of ethical boundaries but there are philosophical and definitional difficulties in defining them. Some, such as animal rights activists, draw a line at sentient beings. Some extend the boundary further to include all life forms, while others include both animate and inanimate entities. For example, Devall and Sessions (1985: 67), "deep ecologists", assert that the basic insight of 'biocentric equality is that all things in the biosphere have an equal right to live and blossom and to reach their own individual forms of unfolding and self-realisation'. Fox (1989) prefers to use the term "ecocentric" rather than "biocentric". He describes an egalitarian attitude to nature that is not limited to entities that are biologically alive.

William Godfrey-Smith (1979: 316) focuses on the living biota rather than the inanimate, but what he says can be applied in the wider sense argued by Fox:

On the holistic or total-field view, organisms - including man - are conceived as nodes in a biotic web of intrinsically related parts. That is, our understanding of biological organisms requires more than just an understanding of their structure and properties; we also have to attend seriously to their interrelations.

The position taken in this thesis is that, from an ecological perspective that recognises the complex and fundamental interrelationships of life forms and inanimate habitat, it is difficult to ignore a holistic ethical view. An ecological community is more than the sum of its parts; the relationships are significant along with the individual components. Yet, inclusion of the inanimate within the ethical community, such as the earth beneath a national park, is not a widely held value position.

Even so, the community has identified national parks as places of special value. The life forms within parks are extended a sort of ethical consideration in national park Acts and Regulations which protect them. The "higher order" animals are also given this consideration both inside and outside parks, in laws dealing with cruelty to animals. Recent Tasmanian legislation on cruelty to animals contains a notable example of the difficulty some have with defining the ethical community, especially when there are economic considerations at stake. The Tasmanian Government has specifically exempted "battery hens" from the cruelty provisions of the legislation.

### 2.3 Human Interests and Intrinsic Value

On what basis should consideration be given to nature, and national parks in particular? Should extensions of an ethical boundary occur because of some widened perspective of human interests, or because value in nature is attributed independent of use value to humans? In other words, value could be determined by usefulness to humans, that is, instrumental or utility value, or determined because of some intrinsic value, irrespective of a human centred framework of usefulness. Deep ecologists, and "transpersonal ecologists" such as Fox, place less emphasis on the issue of intrinsic value, arguing instead for a transpersonal identification with all of nature leading to an unfolding, more expansive sense of self (Fox, 1989). This, they say, makes the instrumental/intrinsic distinctions irrelevant. They agree with the supporters of the intrinsic value position in rejecting instrumental rationales for widening the ethical boundaries. These rationales are anthropocentric in perspective. Such human centred approaches are identified as being part of the environmental problem rather than part of the possible solutions.

Undoubtedly nature has instrumental value for human beings, as it does for all life forms. Yet, apparently most of the universe, both animate and inanimate, exists totally and comfortably independent of humans, irrespective of their "usefulness" to us. John Muir said (quoted in Fox, 1981: 52):

The world we are told was made for man, a presumption that is totally unsupported by facts. There is a very numerous class of men who are cast into

painful fits of astonishment whenever they find anything living or dead, in all God's universe, which they cannot eat or render in some way what they call useful to themselves.

The position adopted here is that whether there are intrinsic values in nature is important only in as much as there are implications for how humans should act. Therefore the ethical boundaries can be extended to encompass the planet as a whole system, irrespective of whether this is for the benefit of humans or for reasons independent of human concerns. Godfrey-Smith (1979: 318) says, 'the essential step in recognising an enlarged community involves coming to see, feel, and understand what was previously perceived as alien and apart: it is the evolution of the capacity of empathy'.

Fox is concerned that an anthropocentric basis for empathy with a widened ethical community may mean that anything people do not value will not be considered. The position taken in this thesis is that nothing in the system can be considered useless, in the sense that concerns Fox, if the whole planetary system is the subject of human ethical concern. People may not know precisely something's "use" or its relationships in the total scheme of things but yet accept its existence and that it has a role. Besides, as a guide to human action, the debate at this level does not provide clear answers. In any particular instance, even if the intrinsic value position is adopted, which intrinsic value or values take precedence must be decided if conflicts arise. Accepting intrinsic values in nature may make people think more about their actions, but it does not mean that they will act any differently. In some cases it would be dysfunctional for humans to maintain some intrinsic values at the expense of others, particularly where human survival is concerned. In other words, humans will and must, at least some of the time, place their own intrinsic values first. Thompson (1983: 91) argues, 'logically speaking, it does not follow that we would ever have to prefer environmental values over other things that we hold to be intrinsically valuable - like human happiness and welfare'.

Leopold (1949: 240) argued that people need to change 'the rôle of Homo sapiens from a conqueror of the land community to a plain member and citizen of it'. However, Rose (1988: 387) points out, 'we can't write ourselves out of the system any more than we can define

ourselves as its ultimate focus'. Therefore, it is proposed here that humans should show respect, care and consideration for the planet that is fundamental to both our survival and that of other entities. And yet, while people can and should expand the ethical boundaries beyond exclusively human concerns to include the community of nature (Hay, 1988), human concerns remain relevant. Hence, a concern for the well-being of people remains part of the ethical landscape. Cultural, geographical and regional differences, and changing circumstances and issues that affect people cannot be ignored. Environmental values must be applied in actual circumstances. It is a mistake to focus on the ideological purity of 'a world view that is magnificently blinding in its glaring, seamless totality' (Flanagan, 1990: 209). Rather, within the framework of general principles, there has to be relevance to the local context, applying as Jim Cheney (1989: 325) says, a form of 'ethical vernacular'.

This debate in environmental philosophy spills over into questions about the values and uses of national parks. In the face of legislative definitions and management objectives for Australian national parks, arguing for the intrinsic values of national parks is difficult and probably fruitless. The legislation is framed on the premise of use to people, an instrumental value premise. It reflects the views of those who hold exclusively instrumental values about the environment and national parks in particular. To maintain park values in the world of politics, legislation, and bureaucracy requires political support and a groundswell of public opinion. Generally, this has meant the premise of the arguments put for national parks is their values for people. The IUCN (1972), when referring to the values of national parks, speaks of 'the manifest contributions of national parks to the well-being of the community in social, environmental and economic terms'.

## **2.4 The Instrumental Values of National Parks**

With the instrumental values of national parks holding such pre-eminent sway, both in the general community and in the legislative framework, it is important to distinguish those instrumental values that include or most harmonise with protection and preservation of

environmental values. There is a range of instrumental values, some much more environmentally benign than others.

Godfrey-Smith (1979) proposed four catch phrases that encapsulate the most benign instrumental values of wilderness. In the United States and Australia, they are frequently applied to national parks. They are:

- the **silo** value which, when applied to national parks, gives them value as a stockpile of genetic material;
- the **laboratory** value as a place for scientific study;
- the **gymnasium** value as a place for recreation and tourism; and
- the **cathedral** value as a place for spiritual renewal and aesthetic appreciation.

Fox (1990) names additional instrumental values along the same lines. He proposes:

- the **life support system** value whereby the world provides us with essential "goods and services" necessary for our healthy survival - a physical nourishment value;
- the **early warning system** value, allied with the life support value, which could also be seen as a special case of the laboratory (scientific) value identified by Godfrey-Smith - an informational value;
- the **laboratory** value (similar to Godfrey-Smith) - an informational value;
- the **silo** value (similar to Godfrey-Smith) - an informational value;
- the **gymnasium** value (similar to Godfrey-Smith) - an experiential value;
- the **art gallery** value, an offshoot of Godfrey-Smith's cathedral value, concentrating on aesthetic values - an experiential value;
- the **cathedral** value (similar to Godfrey-Smith) - an experiential value;
- the **monument** value which is the preservation of the non-human world for its symbolic instructional value to humans - symbolic instructional value; and

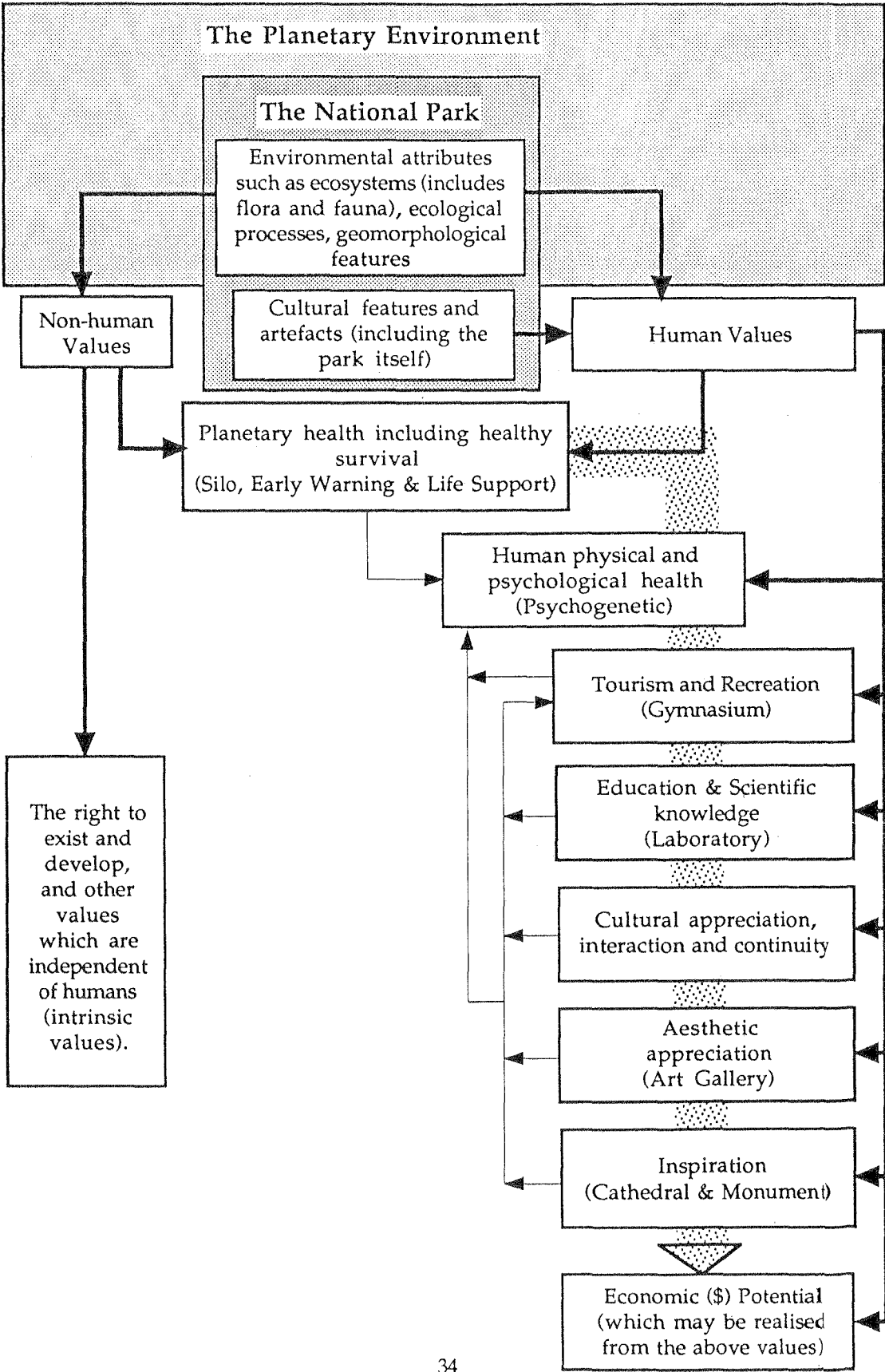
- the psychogenetic value which emphasises the satisfaction of fundamental psycho-developmental needs, as distinct from experiences we merely like or choose, which are covered by the art gallery, cathedral, and gymnasium values - psychological nourishment value.

While Fox applies these values to the environment in general, they can be applied, in varying degrees, to national parks. National parks, although a small part of the planetary environment, can play a benchmark role in an environmental early warning system. They probably play only a small part in the life support role.

In recent years, particular emphasis has been given to the scientific values of national parks. Maintaining biological diversity is seen as fundamentally important (Kelly & Robson, 1993; Kirkpatrick et al, 1990; Miller, 1992). The rationale for this focus is sometimes instrumental, couched in scientific concerns for comprehensiveness, adequacy, and representativeness (Kelly & Robson, 1993). However, Kirkpatrick et al (1990), before turning to the scientific methodologies, argue non-anthropocentric (intrinsic) values as a basis for biodiversity conservation. Whatever the basis, protecting biodiversity has become a major value of national parks.

Both Godfrey-Smith and Fox, when identifying these instrumental values, were writing about wilderness or nature distinct from human culture and its developments. Consequently, the instrumental values of cultural or social attributes that national parks might have are not identified. Yet clearly, in many parts of the world, national parks are also people's homes or traditional lands, or constitute a component of their social landscape. Even if now uninhabited, many national parks contain important cultural heritage sites. The concept of a national park itself is a human derived value (Elliot, 1982). As Machlis & Tichnell (1985: 95) point out, 'we must always remember that national parks, for all their seeming wildness and the apparent dominance of Nature, are partly social creations. They are conceived, established, maintained, and in turn threatened by society'.

Figure 2      Summary of the Contemporary Values of National Parks



## 2.5 Economic Value and National Parks as Environmental "Capital"

The values of the environment in general, and national parks in particular, can be viewed from an economic perspective. This perspective can have a strong influence on how national parks are perceived. From an environmental economics viewpoint, Winpenny (1991) identifies three services or functions (instrumental values) of the environment:

- general life support;
- supply of raw materials and energy; and
- absorption of waste products or the "sink" function.

These services and functions can be expanded and elaborated upon to include the instrumental values identified by Godfrey-Smith and Fox. All these instrumental values can be said to have economic value or alternatively to only have value in as much they have economic worth.

National parks have always implicitly, and often explicitly, been seen to provide economic value, chiefly through tourism. In recent years, economists have attempted to determine this value more accurately. Attempts are made to determine and compare the economic value of full protection, various "compatible" uses of a park, and other non conservation uses of the area.

Things that are useful to people become resources or "human assets" as Livingston (1981) describes them. The environmental resource can be seen as a capital asset that translates into wealth by consumption, transformation, and other uses of it. Reserved land such as national parks are subject to this economic scrutiny because for some they represent an unrealised capital asset. One view is that not to exploit natural resources, including those of the national parks, is wasteful (Mercer, 1991).

The premise of economic valuation of parks is their instrumental value. The fundamental assumption is that the aim of government policy must be to improve the immediate and long term well-being of



the community. For many economists, the consequent assumption is that this can only be achieved by development of resources. Burns and Associates (1989: 26) argue that:

If no use was made of a park, the absence of the impact of human activity might well mean that the quality of the site was maintained at a certain level. It is highly implausible, however, that a zero human activity level represents the use of the resource that would maximise the well-being of Australians. A better solution, almost certainly, would be to permit some use even if this meant a reduction in site quality.

Although economic determinism is a very limiting way to evaluate the biophysical world (McHarg, 1969), wealth creation is often the fundamental premise on which decision making is based. Appropriate use of national parks, or whether there should be a national park at all, the economic rationalists would argue, is to be judged by which use generates the most economic wealth. 'Two fundamental principles drive this interpretation. The first is that the natural resource base can be permitted to be consumed, degraded, or otherwise used. The second is that this approach suggests that activities that produce less wealth can be displaced and substituted by those that produce more wealth' (McKercher, 1991[b]: 135).

Economists are interested in alternative use of resources based on their wealth creating potential (Burns and Associates, 1989). This approach is often used by resource extraction industry sectors, such as mining and forestry, to argue that areas should not be set aside as national parks if it means forgoing alternative uses that produce more wealth (Bella, 1987). In traditional economic terms, such development often will provide financial returns that could not be matched by keeping an area undeveloped except for nature-based tourism (Sherman and Dixon, 1991). The consequent constant pressure to exploit natural areas has been identified by Darling and Eichhorn (1969) as a very real threat to national parks in the United States.

Attempts to balance the values of the environment and economic development have led to the concept of ecologically sustainable development. One approach to ecologically sustainable development is to ensure, among other things, that natural environmental assets are left intact over a particular period, bequeathing 'to future generations

the same "capital", embodying opportunities for potential welfare, that we currently enjoy' (Winpenny, 1991: 3). However, some economists, take a different approach, arguing that it is not necessary to maintain a constant physical level of capital to achieve sustainable development. Rather an approach that preserves value in economic terms (Winpenny, 1991) is seen as acceptable, even if it leaves a 'depauperate natural environment' (Callicott, undated). This approach 'argues on behalf of the "constant wealth concept", whereby wealth is calculated based on the aggregate value of both natural and man-made capital. The total asset base should grow between generations, although the absolute stock of natural assets may be permitted to decline providing that their use generates wealth' (McKercher, 1991[b]: 135). However, while some natural capital can be transformed into, and be replaced by human-made capital, "natural capital" includes phenomena that cannot be replaced by human-made capital such as species diversity and ecosystem integrity (ESD Working Groups, 1991).

Jacobs (1993) rejects allowing natural capital to decline, and argues that the aim should always be to maintain the natural capital stock intact. He identifies mechanisms for achieving this, such as:

- setting sustainable yields for renewable resources;
- establishing "critical loads" in terms of pollution; and
- directing revenues into research and development of renewable resources as substitutes for non-renewable resources.

Jacobs criticises those economists who argue that the future will take care of itself because the depletion of natural capital will be compensated for by technological advances. For example, he questions the likelihood of technology providing the life support services of nature such as climate regulation, genetic diversity, and the ozone layer. He says it is unlikely 'that we will find human-made alternatives to the natural world as a source of both physical and mental health - of beauty, tranquillity and joy even, though of course these are not things one discusses in polite economic company' (Jacobs, 1993: 3).

These are some of the arguments for maintaining the natural capital of the environment in general, but additional ones apply in the case of national parks. The natural capital of the parks is generally seen, by

historic precedent, legislative definition, and community values as particularly special natural capital, to be maintained in perpetuity. Even so, arguments remain for determining the economic values of parks. Machlis and Tichnell (1985), MacEwen and MacEwen (1982), and Boo (1991) see both the need and the opportunity for national parks to be of economic value to the nearby communities and regions in which they are situated. In defence of economic valuation of the environment, Winpenny (1991) argues that while life, beauty, and diversity of species have an absolute value that makes them inherently non-quantifiable, there are many instances of apparent "non-quantifiables" such as health, an unobstructed view, air and water quality to which the economic measuring rod is already being partially applied. Winpenny says that although cost-benefit analysis can be manipulated cynically and its objectivity undermined to meet pre-determined ends, the refinement of cost-benefit techniques to include environmental factors can be helpful for environmental protection. He argues that it highlights that the environment is not "free", it redresses the balance between quantifiable and non-quantifiable effects or monetary and non-monetary values, and it narrows the field of difficult and arbitrary judgement. However, Jacobs (1993) is more cautious. He asserts that cost-benefit analysis is based on what he calls the "weak" interpretation of sustainable development. It assumes that trade-offs can be made between environmental considerations and other considerations. Done too lightly, it can simply mean "business as usual". He argues for a "strong" interpretation that accepts that there are necessary environmental limits that cannot be exceeded and adopts the process of "constrained policy analysis". Jacobs says such a process is common when assessing options within budget constraints and that the same should be applied to environmental constraints.

The Resource Assessment Commission (1992) notes the range of interpretations for taking conservation and development into account concurrently. One view allows for environmental matters to be considered but traded off against other objectives, while the opposing view is that environmental objectives should take precedence over and if necessary constrain development objectives. The latter view is more readily sustainable in the case of development in national parks, because, by definition, the parks have been identified as having

significant environmental values. It is the view adopted in this thesis. There are necessary environmental constraints on development in national parks that should be identified, and operated within. Such constraints should take precedence over development objectives.

## 2.6 Methodologies for Economic Valuation

Methodologies of economic valuation of national parks must deal with some seemingly intangible values. Some potential uses of national parks do not require physically using the park at all. To these, economists attribute an existence value or an option value. Some other uses do not have a readily identifiable economic value. However, some economists argue that intangible personal, spiritual, social, and cultural values should be, and can be, reduced to an economic value. Increasingly complex methodologies have been developed to try to deal with such elements in the economic equation. Indeed, if economic calculations are to be made, it is necessary to deal with these values. Otherwise, biased conclusions will almost certainly result if things that cannot easily be measured or given economic weight are ignored or down-played. Godfrey-Smith (1979) warns against this "dwarfing of soft variables" in cost-benefit calculations.

Burns and Associates (1989) cite a range of methodologies to determine the economic impact of tourism in Australia, all of which can be applied to national parks. These range from informal determination of contributions to the balance of payments, through slightly less ad hoc approaches using a multiplier analysis (usually relating to employment benefits), to detailed cost-benefit analysis. However, the Resource Assessment Commission (1992) found that these approaches cannot determine environmental and cultural costs and benefits in a sufficiently precise form for traditional cost-benefit analysis. The Commission found that in practice, cost-benefit analysis has principally been concerned with readily identifiable impacts, leaving aside losses of ecological and social values.

One difficulty in developing a cost-benefit analysis of particular relevance to national parks is the costing of public goods including environmental goods. Government charges such as entry fees may

apply, or commercial concessionaire fees may be charged to users. However, many of these public goods are available to all irrespective of payment (for example, a view of distant mountains protected within a park, clean air), are available to many people at the same time, and generally are not diminished in availability to other people because someone is using them. An associated concern of environmental economics in dealing with the existence of public goods and environmental goods is the issue of externalities. This arises when an activity of one person depends upon uncostered activities or services of others, such as the general community, or of uncostered contributions of the environment itself. This becomes critical in national parks where developments claimed to be economically viable ignore the true costs of the development. For ecologically sustainable development to be economically consistent, the contribution of environmental assets or the services and assets of the park management agency and the community must be included in costings. In the past, this has frequently not been the case. According to Craik (1991: 75), 'ventures have attracted substantial public subsidies, tax advantages and other cosy arrangements to the same end, incurring massive public debts and political and social conflict'.

Both hedonic price approaches and the more direct method of contingent valuation are sometimes used to measure the less tangible aspects of the cost-benefit equation. Hedonic methods rely on an indirect approach to calculating economic value (Burns and Associates, 1989). Market information is used about transactions in goods and services selected as comparable to the aspect of the environment to be valued. Clawson and Knetsch (1966) applied an alternative method, somewhat related to the hedonic approach, based on travel cost. It assumes that the cost of travelling to a site reflects the value people place upon that site (Resource Assessment Commission, 1992).

Alternatively, where there is no simple market for the values being priced, people are asked to nominate a willingness to pay to maintain (or forgo) that value. This is the contingent valuation method. For example, public outdoor recreation has developed generally as a non-market good where prices do not reflect the value to users (Clawson and Knetsch, 1966). To determine the market value, people may be

asked to place a price on the existence or option values they place on national parks. This provides an economic value for preserving a national park to give people the benefit of knowing it exists or the option of visiting the area in the future. The option or existence value includes the value to future generations. Winpenny (1991: 44) says the motives of 'these "armchair" friends of the environment' include 'altruism, sympathy for the natural world, vicarious pleasure, a sense of responsibility, a desire to pass on natural resources for future generations'.

Both the travel cost and the contingent valuation methods assume that people can and will indicate value preferences in monetary form (Resource Assessment Commission, 1992), and that bias can be eliminated from the questions and responses used to determine contingent valuation. Knetsch (1993), with the weight of now considerable experience behind him, sounds serious warnings on the validity of many of these valuations and their usefulness. Even if such difficulties can be overcome, Jacobs (1993) warns that contingent valuation should only be one criterion for making decisions about environmental matters. He says cost-benefit analysis is impossible in more than the short term because changes in prices and structures of demand make longer term analysis impossible. Since the state of national parks is not a short term matter, this is a critical consideration.

The questionable success of traditional modelling of the economy sounds a warning on the accuracy and predictive power of these new models. Nevertheless, they may be able to provide an approximation of the economic values of appropriate uses of national parks (Centre for Regional Economic Analysis, 1987). The argument that they should be used to determine what is an appropriate use of a national park is a different matter. To so argue indicates an ideological acceptance of economic value being the primary basis for decision making. The position adopted here is that, at best, these models are useful to determine possible economic outcomes of use decisions, decisions made for a variety of reasons that may or may not include economic considerations. They should not be used as the basis for decision making about uses of national parks.

## 2.7 Conclusions

The values of national parks must be translated into why and how humans should act. Therefore the values proposed by this thesis are, with one exception, "benign" instrumental or utility values. If parks were reserved for their intrinsic values alone, their long term survival could be doubtful. Whatever else their values may be, they are also cultural artefacts, created as an environmental management concept. This human value underpins the existence of national parks. In the current political and bureaucratic circumstances, the following values of national parks are proposed (see also Figure 2, page 34). The values of national parks are:

- to protect and preserve in perpetuity, representative examples of the natural environment, that is, 'physiographic regions, biotic communities, genetic resources, and species, to provide ecological stability and diversity' (IUCN, quoted in Kelly & Robson, 1993: 45) for both its intrinsic value and as an underpinning to a variety of human values (such as the "silo" and "laboratory" values of Godfrey-Smith and the "early warning system" of Fox);
- protect and preserve cultural heritage, sites and artefacts;
- provide for human aesthetic appreciation of the beauty of natural and cultural features (the "art gallery" values of Fox);
- provide opportunities for human inspiration (the "cathedral" values of Godfrey-Smith and the "monument" values of Fox);
- contribute to human health (includes the "psycho-development" needs and "life support" requirements of humans suggested by Fox but also includes physical fitness, ie, the "gymnasium" values of Godfrey-Smith);
- provide for human education in, and appreciation of, natural and cultural features (in part the "laboratory" value of Godfrey-Smith, although he specifies pursuit of scientific knowledge);

- allow for human recreation, including tourism, based upon the preceding values (the "gymnasium" value of Godfrey-Smith); and
- generate economic benefit, realised from the above values.

Not all instrumental values are "use" values in the sense that people directly use the national park by visiting it. This includes the "option" or "existence" values discussed earlier in the chapter. However, because this thesis deals with tourism in parks, the uses that depend upon visiting and directly using or manipulating the national park environment are those addressed.



## Chapter 3 - The Legislative Lack of Clarity

### 3.1 Introduction

There are widely differing definitions of national parks, sometimes held intuitively. They often turn out to be ill-defined and contradictory. The difficulty with the definitions begins with their historic roots. As discussed in Chapter 1, most early national parks were established for human pleasure, and, usually on scenic grounds, were seen as tourist destinations or pleasure parks. In more recent times, the view of national parks has shifted and widened to place a greater emphasis on conservation, protection of biodiversity, and scientific values as the primary values of national parks (Bridgewater, 1993). They are also valued from the perspective of an ecocentric view of human/nature relationships (Russell, 1993). Nevertheless, as the following review of the legislative framework for national parks in Australia shows, most parks are established with what Machlis and Tichnell (1985) refer to as the "paradoxical mandate" to provide for public recreation and tourism in places that are to be preserved. This paradox leads to conflict because 'for many people in the community, developments in protected areas severely jeopardise the conservation values that have led to their creation, while others see these primarily as a recreational resource' (ESD Working Groups, 1991: 18). The conflict is further heightened because areas now valued by some in the community for their conservation values may not have been reserved principally for those values, but specifically for human use and enjoyment.

### 3.2 Definitions, Reserve Categories and Roles

In 1970, Australian State Ministers agreed to the following definition of national parks (Frawley, 1988: 405):

A National Park is a relatively large area set aside for its features of predominantly unspoiled natural landscape, flora and fauna, permanently dedicated for public enjoyment, education and inspiration, and protected from all interference other than essential management practices, so that its natural attributes are preserved.

The International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN, 1993) uses this definition of a national park:

Protected natural areas of land and/or sea, designated to

- (a) protect the ecological integrity of one or more ecosystems for this and future generations;
- (b) eliminate and thereafter prevent exploitation or occupation inimical to the purposes of designation of the area; and
- (c) provide a foundation for spiritual, scientific, educational, recreational and visitor opportunities, all of which must be environmentally and culturally compatible.

The IUCN has developed a range of reserve categories for areas warranting some form of environmental protection. These are shown in Figure 3. IUCN categories reflect, in ascending numerical order, greater degrees of acceptable human use of the reserve (Lucas, 1992). The spectrum ranges from strictly protected scientific reserves and nature reserves through to multiple use management areas providing for a range of human uses. Most Acts dealing with national parks and conservation make provision for a range of reserve types. Usually there is an implied difference of emphasis on the acceptable degree of human use. However, public familiarity with the range of reserves and their purposes is often lacking. Even governments use what are meant to be internationally accepted reserve categories in inconsistent ways.

**Figure 3** IUCN Categories of Protected Areas (Summary)  
Source: Kelly & Robson (1993)

I.	Scientific Reserve and Wilderness Area
II.	National Park
III.	Natural Monument
IV.	Habitat and Wildlife Management Area
V.	Protected Landscape
VI.	Managed Resource Protected Area

Lucas (1992: 13) suggests that national parks have 'long held the focus of attention for those concerned with the ensuring the preservation of the

widest possible range of ecosystems and species in the wild'. He laments that in some countries, governments are using the title of national park for areas that do not fit into the IUCN Category II for national parks. This occurs, for example, in Britain and in Africa. On the other hand, Lusigi (1978) questions the appropriateness of the IUCN definition for parks in countries such as Kenya, arguing that additional qualifications, or a widening of the definition, to suit local situations are necessary. An alternative solution used in Tanzania was to excise the Ngorongoro area from the Serengeti National Park in 1959, establishing instead a Conservation Area with the aim of accommodating the Maasai people and their traditional pastoral lifestyle (Lucas, 1992). The IUCN, recognising the difficulties that can arise applying national park criteria in areas with high conservation values and continuing human occupation, has developed an alternative category to that of national park called 'protected landscape', IUCN Category V (Lucas, 1992). The particular distinction made by IUCN is that national park status cannot apply to landscapes or seascapes where 'resident populations and their resource use patterns are integral but have materially altered their naturalness' (Lucas, 1992: 4). Bridgewater (1993) similarly proposes that national parks should be protected from 'ordinary human activity' (see below).

Bridgewater (1993: 37) cites Hales (1989) who identifies four main roles for national parks:

- a. to single out for special recognition what is considered to represent a "primitive" or "natural" area, i.e. an area with special interesting characteristics - a "natural" curiosity;
- b. to set aside special places for protection from the ravages of ordinary human use;
- c. to have areas available for the enjoyment of visitors; and
- d. to protect natural treasures.

In asserting the important role of the national park system in Australia, Bridgewater (1993: 39) says that such a system should:

- a. single out areas of special cultural or natural interest;
- b. provide protection from ordinary human activity;
- c. provide areas for human recreation and enjoyment and be part of the national economic diversification agenda;
- d. protect and manage national treasures;
- e. be part of a national education system to broaden the understanding of the flora, fauna and landscapes of Australia;

- f. be reservoirs of biological diversity and maintain healthy ecological processes;
- g. preserve representative areas of the major landscapes and seascapes of Australia;
- h. be sites for monitoring the effect of environmental change on the ecological health of Australia and the biological integrity of the represented landscapes;
- i. be sites of ecological integrity, i.e. including appropriate boundary zones, especially at the land/sea interface.

The United States, where the concept of national parks originated, set up a National Park Service under the *National Park Service Act* of 1916. The objects of the Service were 'to conserve the scenery and natural objects and the wildlife therein, to provide for the enjoyment of the same, in such a manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations' (MacEwen & MacEwen, 1982: 4).

Current Australian legislation dealing with national parks in this country reflects a similar mandate. The earliest national parks in Australia were established by separate Acts enacted specifically for each park. This was also the case in the United States. Eventually each of the Australian States passed an Act like the 1916 US Act. National parks now fall collectively under the jurisdiction of a single Act in each State, though the Acts vary from State to State.

Putting aside for the moment the appropriateness of the IUCN definition, Lucas's point about variations from the definition is immediately apparent. In Australia, only a few parks such as Kakadu and Uluru are managed by the Federal Government. Except where the Federal Government has some influence, because of its external affairs powers in the case of World Heritage Areas, or other financing powers such as tied grants to the States, control over national parks in Australia rests with individual State Governments. They legislate for and control national parks within their own State. The following pages provide a brief review of pertinent sections of the Acts of each State. The review focuses on the clarity of definitions and purposes of national parks expressed within the Acts.

### 3.3 Commonwealth Legislation

The Commonwealth of Australia *National Parks and Wildlife Conservation Act* 1975, which only covers parks in the External Territories and the Northern Territory, is not precise about the reasons for establishing national parks. The object of Part II of the Act is:

to make provision for the establishment and management of parks and reserves-

- (a) appropriate to be established by the Commonwealth Government, having regard to its status as a national government;
- (b) in the Territories;
- (c) in the Australian coastal seas;
- (d) for the purposes related to the rights (including sovereign rights) and obligations of Australia in relation to the continental shelf of Australia;
- (e) for facilitating the carrying out by Australia of obligations under, or exercise by Australia of rights under, agreements between Australia and other countries; or
- (f) conducive to the encouragement of tourism between the States and between other countries and Australia.

Point (f) is of most interest here. Section 11, dealing with plans of management, contains the only other references to the purposes and values of national parks. While no clear definition of a national park is given, one can be inferred from the objectives for preparing management plans. Section 11, Subsection 8 states:

In the preparation of the plan of management, regard shall be had to the following objects:

- (a) in the case of a park - the encouragement and regulation of the appropriate use, appreciation and enjoyment of the park by the public;
- (b) in the case of a reserve - the regulation of the use of the reserve for the purpose for which it was declared;
- (ba) in the case of a park or reserve wholly or partly within the Region - the interests of the traditional Aboriginal owners of, and of other Aboriginals interested in, so much of the land within the park or reserve as is within the Region;
- (c) the preservation of the park or reserve in its natural condition and the protection of its special features, including objects and sites of biological, historical, palaeontological, archaeological, geological and geographical interest;
- (d) the protection, conservation and management of wildlife within the park or reserve; and
- (e) the protection of the park or reserve against damage.

### 3.4 Western Australia

In the *Conservation and Land Management Act 1984*, which repeals the earlier *National Parks Authority Act 1976*, there is an oblique reference to the values of national parks in Section 56 that refers to the objectives of management plans. The Act states:

in the case of national parks and conservation parks, to fulfil so much of the demand for recreation by members of the public as is consistent with the proper maintenance and restoration of the natural environment, the protection of indigenous flora and fauna and the preservation of any feature of archaeological, historic or scientific interest.

These objectives apply to both national parks and conservation parks, neither of which are further defined in the Act except in an administrative sense. The statement is a good example of the paradoxical mandate referred to previously where the purpose of national parks appears to be public recreation, provided certain environmental and other conditions are met.

### 3.5 South Australia

In South Australia, in the *National Parks and Wildlife Act 1972*, a similar situation prevails. In that Act, set out under the objectives of management (Section 37) which apply also to reserves other than national parks, a sense of the values ascribed to national parks can be inferred. The objectives of management include "housekeeping" matters such as weed, pest and disease control and fire management but the objectives relevant here are:

- (a) the preservation and management of wildlife;
- (b) the preservation of historic sites, objects and structures of historic or scientific interest within reserves;
- (c) the preservation of features of geographical, natural or scenic interest;

and

- (h) the encouragement of public use and enjoyment of reserves and education in, and a proper understanding and recognition of, their purpose and significance;
- (i) generally the promotion of the public interest.

Apart from another objective (j) which refers to a "regional reserve" and has been omitted here, the objectives do not refer specifically to any

category of reserve. Presumably therefore any or all of them can apply to national parks. No order of priority is stated and the overlap with the definitions of a national park discussed earlier is at best piecemeal. It can be inferred that national parks are for the purposes of preservation of wildlife, historic sites, objects and structures of historic and scientific interest, and features of geographical, natural or scenic interest. In addition, they are places for public use and enjoyment, and education, and generally for the promotion of the public interest.

### 3.6 Victoria

The Victorian *National Parks Act* 1975 begins with a preamble that states:

... it is in the public interest that certain Crown land characterised by its predominantly unspoilt landscape, and its flora, fauna or other features, should be reserved and preserved and protected for the benefit of the public.

The objects of this Act are:

- 4 (a) to make provision, in respect of national parks -
  - (i) for the preservation and protection of the natural environment including wilderness areas in those parks;
  - (ii) for the protection and preservation of indigenous flora and fauna and of features of scenic or archaeological, ecological, geological, historic or other scientific interest in those parks; and
  - (iii) for the study of ecology, geology, botany, zoology and other sciences relating to the conservation of the natural environment in those parks;

and, leaving aside 4(b) that applies to categories of parks other than national parks:

- (c) to make provision in accordance with the foregoing for the use of parks by the public for the purposes of enjoyment, recreation or education and for the encouragement and control of that use.

Section 17 of the Act provides further detail and includes the "housekeeping" objectives common in many of the Acts. The directly relevant objectives are set out below:

- 17(1) Each area of land described in a part of Schedule Two is, for the purposes of this Act, a national park under the name specified in that part.
- (2) The Director shall, subject to this Act-

- (a) ensure that each national park and State park is controlled and managed, in accordance with the objects of this Act, in a manner that will-
  - (i) preserve and protect the park in its natural condition for the use, enjoyment and education of the public;
  - (ii) preserve and protect indigenous flora and fauna in the park;

and

- (v) preserve and protect wilderness areas in the park and features in the park of scenic, archaeological, ecological, geological, historic or other scientific interest;

and

- (c) promote and encourage the use and enjoyment of national parks and State parks by the public and the understanding and recognition of the purpose and significance of national parks and State parks.

From this Act it can be deduced that national parks are in the public interest, to be reserved, preserved and protected for the public benefit, particularly for use, enjoyment, education and understanding. Echoing a theme that is common to most of the Australian Acts, a national park is also for the preservation and protection, in a natural condition, of flora and fauna, and scenic and other features. In this Act, wilderness areas gain a specific mention. There is an implied priority given to conservation in the Act, in that Section 4(c) provides for public use and enjoyment in accordance with the preceding conservation objectives.

### 3.7 New South Wales

The New South Wales *National Parks and Wildlife Act* 1974 does not list the reasons for which a national park may be dedicated, although it deals with the purposes for which, for example, a nature reserve, may be dedicated. A nature reserve may be dedicated for the purposes of:

- (a) the care, propagation, preservation and conservation of wildlife;
- (b) the care, preservation and conservation of natural environments and natural phenomena;
- (c) the study of wildlife, natural environments and natural phenomena; and
- (d) the promotion of the appreciation and enjoyment of wildlife, natural environments and natural phenomena.

A similar explicit definition of a national park would be useful. To find some idea of the purposes and values of national parks in the



NSW Act, it is necessary to look, as with many of the other State, to the sections that deal with the preparation of management plans. In Section 72(4), the NSW Act sets the objectives to which the management plan shall have regard. However, these are generic, applying to a whole range of reserve types. What distinguishes a nature reserve from a national park is not explained.

The familiar objectives of conservation and preservation combined with use, understanding, and enjoyment by the public are given, with an additional reference to any lessee, licensee, or occupant. The purpose of catchment protection gets a specific mention. The possibility of national parks including wilderness is also recognised. The relevant objectives that directly mention or do not exclude national parks are as follows:

- (a) the conservation of wildlife;
- (b) the preservation of each national park, nature reserve, state game reserve, karst conservation area, wildlife refuge or wildlife management area and the protection of the special features of the park, reserve, refuge or area;
- (c) the prohibition of the execution of any works adversely affecting the natural conditions or special features of each national park, nature reserve, state game reserve or karst conservation area;
- (d) the preservation of each historic site and the preservation of any historic structure or object or any relic or Aboriginal place on each national park, historic site nature reserve, state game reserve, karst conservation reserve, Aboriginal area, wildlife refuge or wildlife management area;
- (e) the encouragement and regulation of the appropriate use, understanding and enjoyment of each national park, historic site and state recreation area by the public;

and

- (g) the appropriate use of each national park, historic site, nature reserve, state game reserve or karst conservation reserve by any lessee, licensee or occupant of land therein;
- (h) the preservation of each national park, historic site, nature reserve, state game reserve or karst conservation reserve as a catchment area;

and

- (j) the setting apart of the whole or part of a national park or nature reserve as a wilderness area.

### 3.8 Queensland

In Queensland, the *Nature Conservation Act 1992*, which is the most recent in the States, defines and describes four categories of National Parks. These are:

- National Parks (Scientific)
- National Parks
- National Parks (Aboriginal Land)
- National Parks (Torres Strait Islander Land)

The Act describes how they are to be managed (and thus by implication defines them):

16. A National Park (Scientific) is to be managed -
  - (a) protect the area's exceptional scientific values and, in particular -
    - (i) ensure that the processes of nature continue unaffected in the area; and
    - (ii) protect the area's biological diversity to the greatest possible extent; and
  - (b) allow controlled scientific study and monitoring of the area's natural resources.
- 17.(1) A National Park is to be managed to -
  - (a) provide for the permanent preservation of the area's natural condition to the greatest possible extent; and
  - (b) protect and present the area's cultural and natural resources and their values; and
  - (c) ensure that the only use of the area is nature based and ecologically sustainable
  - (2) The management principles mentioned in subsection (1)(a) and (b) are the cardinal principles for the management of National Parks.
- 18.(1) A National Park (Aboriginal land) is to be managed as a National Park.
  - (2) Subject to subsection (1), a National Park (Aboriginal land) is to be managed, as far as practicable, in a way that is consistent with any Aboriginal tradition applicable to the area, including any tradition relating to activities in the area.
- 19.(1) A National Park (Torres Strait Islander land) is to be managed as a National Park.
  - (2) Subject to subsection (1), a National Park (Torres Strait Islander land) is to be managed, as far as practicable, in a way that is consistent with any Island custom applicable to the area, including any Island custom relating to activities in the area.

This Act most clearly defines a national park and the relevant values. Most significantly it explicitly places permanent preservation,

protection, and presentation of natural and cultural resources and values as the cardinal principles for management, giving them priority over the use of the area. In the section of the Act dealing with definitions, "natural resources" are defined as the 'natural and physical features of the area, including animals, plants, soil, water, minerals, and air'. Of interest, given the earlier discussion on intrinsic value, is that in the definition of "nature" a reference to "intrinsic" is made. "Intrinsic" is not defined.

- 8.(1) "Nature" includes all the aspects of nature.
- (2) Without limiting subsection (1), "nature" includes -
  - (a) ecosystems and their constituent parts; and
  - (b) all natural and physical resources; and
  - (c) natural dynamic processes; and
  - (d) the characteristics of places, however large or small, that contribute to -
    - (i) their biological diversity and integrity; or
    - (ii) their intrinsic or scientific value.

### 3.9 Tasmania

Section 13 of the *National Parks and Wildlife Act* 1970 states that land may be set aside for any number of purposes, only one of which specifically mentions a national park. The purposes apply to a range of reserve types from which the definition of a national park must be inferred:

- (a) its management and maintenance as a national park or otherwise for the purpose of public recreation;
- (b) the preservation or protection of the fauna or flora contained therein, or of any such fauna or flora;
- (c) the preservation or protection of the natural beauty thereof or of any features thereof of natural beauty or scenic interest;
- (d) the preservation or protection of any features thereof, or buildings contained therein, being features or buildings of historical, archaeological, scientific, or architectural interest;
- (e) the preservation or protection of any aboriginal relics thereon;
- (f) any purposes that, in the opinion of the Governor, would promote the conservation of any of the fauna or flora of the State or increase the knowledge thereof;
- (g) the management and taking of game;
- (h) any purpose that, in the opinion of the Governor, would promote the better management or more effective use of land set aside for any of the foregoing purposes,

and any such purpose is, in this Act, referred to as a conservation purpose.

Nowhere else in the Act is a national park defined. Unlike many of the other State Acts, references to management plans do not provide further clues. Although a variety of conservation purposes that apply to a national park can be inferred, one obvious inference is in clause (a) which, while imprecise, suggests the primary value of a national park is for the purposes of public recreation.

### 3.10 Northern Territory

The *Territory Parks and Wildlife Conservation Act* 1976 does not define a park or reserve or mention "national" parks at all, although national parks are reserved under this Act. In Section 12, subsection (3), the Act provides for the purpose of declaration to be specified.

- (3) A notice under subsection (1) declaring an area to be a reserve may specify the purpose or purposes for which it is so declared.

As with other Acts, Section 18, dealing with management plans, gives the clearest indication of what a national park might be.

- (5) In the preparation of the plan of management regard shall be had to the following objects -
  - (a) in the case of a park - the encouragement and regulation of the appropriate use, appreciation and enjoyment of the park by the public;

and

- (c) the preservation of the park or reserve in its natural condition and the protection of its special features, including objects and sites of biological, historical, palaeontological, archaeological, geological and geographical interest;
- (d) the protection, conservation and management of wildlife within the park or reserve; and
- (e) the protection of the park or reserve against damage.

### 3.11 Conclusions

It is clear that, with the exception of Queensland, and to a lesser extent Victoria, national parks are nowhere clearly defined or their key values explicitly identified. However, the various Acts leave no doubt that instrumental use of the parks for human enjoyment, education, and recreation is a key underlying purpose. In some cases this purpose includes the economic values to be derived from parks through their

exploitation for tourism. Unlike the IUCN definition, some of the Australian Acts include references to archaeological, historic, and cultural features and values. This more accurately reflects the reality of a long history of human relationships with the environment, including those areas that are now national parks. In Australia, the areas reserved for national parks are predominantly Aboriginal-influenced environments, but evidence of European history also exists in many.

The first two chapters highlighted the need to clearly rethink and restate the role of national parks. The legislation in Australia, with the exception of Queensland, has not caught up with these shifting and at times conflicting values. The concept of parks needs clarification so that the underlying principles are explicitly defined. The lack of clarity in legislation should be addressed by legislative amendment to include a definition of a national park. A definition is proposed in Chapter 6. The distinctions between different reserve types should also be made explicit, although that is not dealt with here. Some of the existing legislation provides for a statement of intent for each park when it is reserved. Such is not the case in Tasmania. With the long gap that can occur between the reservation of a park and the preparation of a management plan, protection and management can be left in a purposeless vacuum. For example, Mt Field National Park in Tasmania was reserved early this century but still does not have a management plan. Consequently, the reasons for each park's reservation should be made clear.

## Chapter 4 - Characteristics of Tourism and the Possible Impacts on Parks

The development of national parks has been linked with tourism from the beginning. Despite the shift in emphasis to environmental protection, national parks are also seen as places for recreation and tourism. To deal effectively with tourism in national parks, it is important to understand the essential characteristics of the phenomenon. This chapter examines tourism, establishes the need for an assessment framework to deal with it, and identifies key components which should be included in the framework. The need to control tourism activity and development is identified and the characteristics of tourism appropriate in national parks are proposed.

### 4.1 Definitions of Tourism

Definitions of tourism often centre on the concept of an overnight stay away from the usual place of residence. In some instances, the criterion used is distance travelled from home. Generally, tourism is for the purposes of non-work or non-instrumental activity. Tourism South Australia (1990: 4) consider tourism to be that component of travel that is choice sensitive, 'involving overnight stays away from the traveller's normal place of residence which involve an economic and cultural interaction with a host environment'. However, business travel frequently includes a non-work or tourist component. According to Mercer (1991), much international travel is for a combination of both business and pleasure. Gunn (1988) extends the definition of tourism to include all travel apart from commuting. Stankey (1989) prefers to distinguish between travel for pleasure and travel for business. His definition of a tourist is someone who is away from home for at least one night for the purposes of pleasure. He acknowledges that this excludes a large group of people who tour for the day but return home at night. For example, Craik (1991: 25) suggests that 'day trips and excursions are now also being recognised as almost indistinguishable in some tourist sectors'. Domestic weekend recreation also effectively constitutes tourism in its effects on the tourist resource base, including national parks (Mercer, 1991). All definitions stress the discretionary nature of tourism.

McKercher (1991[a]) asserts that conservation activist groups generally use a selective, and mistaken, definition of tourism that assumes a commercial, private sector involvement. In their view, similar non-commercial activities or infrastructure constitutes recreation. However, tourism is not usually defined as requiring commercial private sector involvement. Nor, argues McKercher, is tourism a single phenomenon, but a 'collection of complex interrelated activities'.

Many writers propose categories of tourism, but Mercer argues that the distinction between recreation and tourism is artificial since they are both parts of the leisure phenomenon. For example, if recreation is 'a type of human experience based on intrinsically rewarding engagements during non-obligated time' (Driver et al, 1987: 203), all tourism is recreation. Although tourism may include elements of business and professional travel (Department of Conservation and Natural Resources, 1993), it does so as the recreational component of that travel. A distinction sometimes made is that tourists and recreation participants do not always draw upon the same accommodation resources. However, such a distinction is blurred in a national park. Furthermore, the majority of visitors to national parks do not stay overnight, but they are tourists.

Mercer casts his net quite widely in including all recreation in the same category as tourism, since, for example, organised sporting fixtures are not necessarily tourist events (although major sports matches and events can attract tourists). At the same time, many of the activities, demands for facilities, and impacts of domestic recreation are identical to the those of domestic and international tourism. Another even clearer example is recreation in national parks, where the range of activities and impacts are indistinguishable from those of tourism. In such places, tourism and recreation may be treated synonymously (Department of Conservation and Natural Resources, 1993). This thesis considers tourism, in the broadest sense, as including all the recreation that occurs in parks. This may not be a view that many recreation participants hold of themselves but, for management purposes, they are essentially the same.

## 4.2 The Tourist Experience

They see visions of great cities and wild regions; they are in the marts of commerce or amid the isles of the South; they gaze on Pompei's pillar or on the Andes; and nothing which meets them carries them either forward or backward, to any idea beyond itself. Nothing has a drift or a relation; nothing has a history or a promise. Everything stands by itself, and comes and goes in turn, like the shifting scenes of a show, which leaves the spectator where he was. (Cardinal Newman, quoted in Relph, 1976: 87)

While the definitions of tourism tend to focus on behaviour, to come to terms with tourism demands and impacts it is also necessary to understand what constitutes the tourist experience. Craik (1991) suggests that the traditional marketing of the tourism experience focuses on:

- destinations that are larger-than-life, different, exciting, and uninhibited;
- themes of the unknown, unspoiled, virginal, unchanging, timelessness, traditional, and romantic; and
- a combination of pilgrimage, escape and fantasy.

To Relph (1991: 85), 'it seems that for many people the purpose of travel is less to experience unique and different places than to collect those places (especially on film)'.

The paradox highlighted by Craik (1991: 30) is that 'although tourism is packaged as if it is an escape and the fulfilment of fantasies, it has in fact become highly regimented - a discipline of modernity'. This phenomenon of the "mass" tourism market has been recognised by some tourists and by the marketing industry. "Niche" markets have grown which attempt to escape the regimentation and homogenisation of mass tourism, leading to terms such as the "anti-tourist" or "alternative tourist" or the self conscious application of the term "traveller" rather than tourist. The industry speaks of "cultural tourism", "adventure tourism", "nature-based tourism", "ecotourism", and "endemic tourism" (Pacific Asia Travel Association [PATA], 1992).

There is a strong element of fashion in tourism, with new trends constantly emerging (Craik, 1991). The tourism industry is in a state of continual change, both in the preferences of the individual tourist and



in the marketing of destinations and experiences (ESD Working Groups, 1991). Callicott (undated: 1) wryly notes that 'by the time a style trickles down to the commonality ... the trendsetters want nothing to do with it and are on to something new, different, and perfectly mysterious to the K-Mart shopper'. In other words, it is argued, some people collect tourism experiences in much the same way as they collect the photographs and souvenirs that evidence the tourism event.

Niche markets develop and change as tourism fashion changes. Zell (1991) identifies recent trends towards activity and learning holidays that focus on natural and cultural experiences, participation and learning. These could be important elements in the tourism experiences of the future.

The search for authenticity, education, emotional satisfaction and avoidance of the negative impacts of mass tourism has led to the emerging "New Tourism" market as it can be collectively referred to (Office of Tourism Industry Development, 1993). Yet, Rughani (1993: 7) warns that 'our intentions may begin with a genuine search for greater cultural understanding but they often end in a quest for familiar exotica' based on entertaining stereotypes of place and culture.

The niche market segments of the industry usually share some attributes of the mass tourism market, such as the reliance on international air travel, along with the special pursuits that distinguish them. This sharing also applies the other way around. Boo (1991) notes that tourists primarily seeking a "sun and surf" experience, for example, may add a nature tourism experience to their holiday. Natural values are often important to the mass tourist even if they appear to be incidental to the experience (Shea and Sharp, 1993). It is difficult to neatly distinguish boundaries between types of tourism although the core experiences sought can be different. For example, while all tourists share in cultural tourism experiences to some degree, market segments can be defined where cultural or educational experiences are the sole or primary reason for travel (ESD Working Groups, 1991).

The tourism industry is interested in the tourist experience for marketing purposes. What are sometimes referred to as "psychographic" surveys of tourists are undertaken to determine their needs and preferences. Demographic and socio-economic factors are less relevant than understanding the lifestyle and value characteristics of the tourist (Tourism South Australia, 1990). Market segments can be identified from patterns of use, survey profiles, market research and market trends. In Victoria, the Department of Conservation and Natural Resources (1993: 39) identified, for the Mallee district, the following segments:

- Locals;
- Outdoor people;
- Venturers;
- "Soft" adventurers;
- Special interest travellers;
- Backpackers;
- Stopovers; and
- Day trippers.

Relying on research by the Joseph Banks Group Pty Ltd, Tourism South Australia (1990) identifies four market segments termed "Enthusiasts", "Anti-tourists", "Conservatives", and "Indulgers". These segments are predominantly determined from the values and attitudes of the tourist. Indulgers and anti-tourists, while being distinct markets, share some common characteristics:

- they are discerning
- they are confident
- they like discovering or surprises
- they have an intellectual disposition
- they demand authenticity
- they are environmentally conscious (Tourism South Australia, 1990: 21)

Somewhat similar segments for the tourism market are used in Tasmania. The growth market is said to be composed of tourists who are not 'satisfied with derivations or imitations of other places and experiences' (Department of Tourism, Sport and Recreation, 1990: i).

**Figure 4      Profile of Tourists in Tasmania**  
(derived from Department of Tourism, Sport and Recreation, 1990)

- **The Indulger** - a trend setter; individualistic but passive, stylish and food and wine conscious; environmentally aware, inner directed, well educated and free-spending (can be grouped with the Pioneer under the banner of "Discerning Independent Traveller").
- **The Pioneer** - also a trend setter; individualistic and active, avoiding "commercial" ventures; committed conservationists and environmentalists, also well educated and free-spending (can be grouped with the Indulger under the banner of "Discerning Independent Traveller").
- **The Enthusiast** - an active, party lover; high energy, high experiential, free spender; tends to be younger and enjoy travelling in groups. They are also the biggest gamblers.
- **The Big Spender** - older, passive and status conscious; lovers of luxury and free-spending. Tend to be acquisitive and materialistic.
- **The Aussie** - older, active, pioneers, patriotic; group and family travellers; cautious spenders and sporting enthusiasts.
- **The Conservative** - older, passive, home-bound; somewhat lacking in confidence.
- **The Backpacker** - young, very energetic with strong environmental commitment; cautious spenders; value seekers.

An increasing share of the market is apparently taken up by tourists whose travel preferences are experiential rather than acquisitive in the sense of "collecting" destinations (Department of Tourism, Sport and Recreation, 1990). This is a trend that would please Relph (refer to his comments earlier in this section). The most relevant implication here is the potential match between the expectations of tourists and the protection of the environmental and cultural values and special character of national parks.

### 4.3 The Tourism Cycle

A successful search for the new and the different can, paradoxically, destroy the very thing sought in the process of discovery and development. Consequently, there is always an ongoing search for yet another destination, another experience. The dilemma is that in finding new non-tourist destinations and experiences off the beaten track it is difficult to 'stop the "mass follows elite" phenomenon should a destination become popular' (Craik, 1991: 117). Craik believes the cycle of discovery and homogenisation of places into a mass tourist destination and experience is self-perpetuating, a concern also shared by

Zell (1991). This cycle of growth, peak, and then decline of attractions, areas, or types of experiences has been noted by a number of observers (ESD Working Groups, 1991). It is common in the mass tourism market for destinations and experiences to go out of fashion. 'As a resort's attractiveness declines, frequently as a direct result of tourism, tourists move on to new sites, sometimes leaving behind polluted beaches, a disillusioned local population, and a devastated local economy' (Boo, 1991: 20). In Tasmania, the phenomenon of mass tourism, as it is understood by the industry, is not so apparent. However, readily accessible, popular areas experience large numbers of visitors. The number are continuing to increase and concentration of large numbers in popular locations brings with it many of the familiar problems of mass tourism.

The dilemma is that even if some tour operators are responsible, keeping tour numbers and impacts low, they cannot control other less responsible operators (Wood, 1991). Nor can they control visitor numbers to prevent a destination being "loved to death". Increasing numbers of visitors and tourism fashion trends are aspects of the cyclical process in development of tourist sites. So too is damage to the site "resource" itself. Development of a site's inherent attractions (or developing synthetic attractions on a site, which is not the same thing) can often result in loss of its character (Craik, 1991) or its environmental quality (Boo, 1990). According to Relph, a strong critic of the character of tourism and the tourist experience, 'tourism is an homogenising influence and its effects everywhere seem to be the same - the destruction of the local and regional landscape that very often initiated the tourism, and its replacement by conventional tourist architecture and synthetic landscapes and pseudo-places' (1976: 93).

The development of attractions and entertainments can become an end in itself and the site becomes a mere backdrop. To retain market share and avoid the cycle of decline, resort or destination focussed tourism attractions constantly seek to reinvent themselves by adding new attractions and contriving more gimmicks. This results from the way 'enjoyment today has become more and more to mean mere entertainment' (Darling and Eichhorn, 1969: 80). There may be a place for these "fairground" destinations in places of low environmental or

cultural significance, ranging from theme parks to sacrificial environments like the Gold Coast. However, in areas of high significance (national parks by definition), there is a strong argument for tourist access, facilities and services to relate specifically to the values of the area (Bramley and Carter, 1991). Conservationists are ambivalent about the recreation and tourism uses of parks. They believe that the type of tourist development which "invents" attractions, or where the location is merely, or predominantly, incidental, is unlikely to be appropriate for a national park. Corkill (1988: 19) cautions that 'while conservationists can recognise that there is a spectrum of recreational opportunities which the public may seek to enjoy, the movement does not accept that the whole of this spectrum can or should be incorporated into existing or future public lands reserved under the *National Parks and Wildlife Act*'.

The cyclic process in tourism reflects some aspects of the phenomenon of recreational succession (ESD Working Groups, 1991). A newly discovered, "alternative" destination gradually becomes a mass tourism destination, appealing to different people over time (Mercer, 1991). The impact on visitor experience is disguised by the change in the type of visitors, their expectations, and what facilities and opportunities for enjoyment are necessary (Buckley & Pannell, 1990). Succession can occur inadvertently, or by stealth, in national parks. What is most relevant here is that there is a strong case to identify and plan for succession, if it is to occur, within a clear framework of assessment. Otherwise, destruction of valued environmental and recreational character could occur.

#### **4.4 Does Ecotourism Provide a Model of Appropriate Tourism?**

This section of the chapter reviews current literature on "ecotourism" and draws some conclusions about its usefulness as a model of appropriate tourism in national parks. Hector Ceballos-Lascurain is attributed with coining the term "ecotourism" in 1983 (Allcock et al., 1994). The search for new experiences and destinations, combined with growing levels of interest in the environment has developed into the "ecotourism" niche market. This market segment is now often touted

as the ideal form of tourism for national parks. Ecotourism shares common intent with other niche markets such as cultural tourism and educational tourism, distinguishing them from what Wood (1992) terms "commodity tourism". The intent is to 'give travellers high quality, educational experiences and, in return, expect from a traveller responsible, sensitive reaction to people and places' (Wood, 1992: 1).

Wood includes ecotourism in the "New Tourism" phenomenon. These tourists ideally seek to understand rather than consume places. They are more interested in the ambience of a place than in the icons of mass tourism (Department of Conservation and Environment, 1992). A distinguishing factor of ecotourism is that it is very much more focussed on "content" rather than "service" provision (Wood, 1992). Indeed, the Victorian Department of Conservation and Environment (1992) states that an emphasis on content is the principal characteristic of ecotourism. This is quite the reverse of the view of traditional tourism so criticised by Relph (1976: 83), where 'the act and means of tourism become more important than the places visited'. While some ecotourists may be born, the emphasis on content and education means that all tourists to some extent can be "made" ecotourists by this emphasis (Ryel & Grasse, 1991).

Ecotourism is sometimes referred to as "nature tourism", "green tourism", "nature travel" (Figgis, 1993) or "ethical tourism", "alternative tourism", "environment-friendly tourism", "sustainable tourism" and "environmental pilgrimage" (Valentine, 1991). The terms and definitions continue to proliferate. There are many definitions of ecotourism. Some are discussed below, sufficient to indicate the range of ideas about ecotourism.

According to Shea and Sharp (1993: 2) ecotourism is 'just one of the colours in the nature based tourism rainbow'. Figgis (1993: 8) proposes a definition of ecotourism as 'travel to remote or natural areas which aims to enhance understanding and appreciation of the natural environment and cultural heritage, while avoiding damage or deterioration of the environment and the experience for others'. This definition highlights ideas of remoteness and natural areas, while trying to incorporate a cultural dimension. The definition offered by

Boo (1990: 2), quoting Ceballos-Lascurain, is 'travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in these areas'.

Figgis is supportive of the idea of giving recognition to indigenous people who may inhabit natural areas and 'are both part of the environment and whose cultures are of equal interest to the traveller' (1993: 8). However, Rughani (1993) questions the morality of marketing indigenous peoples as "noble savages" in some rainforest ecotours in South America. He says people should be recognised in their own terms in living societies, not as projections of tourist fantasies.

Zell (1991: 30) defines ecotourism as 'ecologically responsible tourism'. He believes that it is impossible for ecotourism to occur without any effects on ecosystems but believes that a goal for the ecotourism industry should be minimal impact. The ESD Working Groups (1991: 56) describe ecotourism as:

nature-based tourism that is ecologically sustainable and that meets all of the following criteria:

- it is based on relatively undisturbed natural areas;
- it is non-damaging and non-degrading;
- it provides a direct contribution to the continued protection and management of the protected areas used; and
- it is subject to an adequate and appropriate management regime

They also speak of ecologically sustainable tourism which 'aims to encourage an economically viable industry while enhancing or maintaining the quality of the tourist experience and the long-term integrity of natural and cultural resources upon which the industry depends' (ESD Working Groups, 1991: 92). For tourism to be ecologically sustainable, they argue, it should not diminish the natural capital either locally or regionally, nor diminish the range of activities available to present or future generations.

Ryel and Grasse (1991: 165) suggest that ecotourists should examine the environment closely so that the subtle beauty and balance of nature are revealed. In so doing they suggest that 'ecotourism should redefine for

the traveller what is sensational'. Echoing the definition of Wood (1991), Ryel and Grasse (1991: 164) define ecotourism as 'purposeful travel that creates an understanding of cultural and natural history, while safeguarding the integrity of the ecosystem and producing economic benefits that encourage conservation'. Shuste (1992), quoted in the newsletter of the Ecotourism Association of the Indo-Pacific Region (1992: 3), defines ecotourism as 'travel centred around exploring and learning about the natural wonders of a region' observing that education is often 'the added ingredient that puts the 'eco' in tourism'.

The Ecotourism Association of Australia (1992: 1) defines ecotourism as 'ecologically sustainable tourism that fosters conservation and environmental and cultural appreciation and understanding'. The South Australian Ecotourism News (Office of Tourism Industry Development, 1993: 2) says of ecotourism:

- it incorporates both business and conservation objectives;
- it focuses on the quality of natural experiences offered to tourists;
- it is educational, fostering appreciation and enhancing understanding of natural environments and ecological processes;
- it is both ecologically and socially responsible;
- it is predominantly small-scale and definitely low impact in its operations;
- it respects and is beneficial to host communities;
- it is concerned with the impact that tourists can have on each others' experiences; and
- it returns economic benefit for the management of the resources it uses.

Figgis (1993) summarises what distinguishes ecotourism from other forms of tourism as:

- a philosophical commitment to natural and cultural conservation;
- an aim to educate and inspire visitors through participation; and
- avoidance of environmental damage or cultural contamination.

It is apparent from these definitions that, among other things, ecotourism is meant to be ecologically responsible. Ecological responsibility can mean not only limiting or avoiding damage to the places visited, but also limiting or avoiding ecologically unsound practices in travelling to and from a destination (Figgis, 1993). It also can mean not transferring problems associated with waste disposal, or excessive consumption, or the use of ecologically questionable



products, from the pristine protected area visited to some other place where ecological responsibility is forgotten (Chase, 1987). If, as Jane Oliver (1991: 55) believes, 'tourist resorts are, by their very nature, promoting a consumer society', ecological responsibility can become nothing more than a marketing ploy. For credibility with the ecotourist to be maintained, 'ecological tourism (and tourism generally) must use the environment in a sustainable way and tourism can only be sustainable when accompanied by regular investment in the health of the resources it uses' (Preece, 1992: 2).

Locating a development in a national park or taking some aesthetic care with the development is not considered sufficient to deserve the label "environmentally responsible" (Figgis, 1993). Preece and Van Oosterzee (1991: 234) argue rather scathingly that 'a development which chops down several hectares of priceless rainforest can now be called ecologically sustainable because it uses solar power, sprinkles its introduced lawn with recycled sewerage and, because of its (possibly rainforest) timber construction, it blends into the environment'. The more closed the material-use cycle of a tourism development is, reducing, re-using, and recycling to minimise consumption and pollution, the more environmentally responsible the development (ESD Working Groups, 1991).

A claimed advantage of ecotourism over traditional mass tourism and its infrastructure is that it is likely to be modest in scale and culturally appropriate (Figgis, 1993). Generally, nature tourists are said not to expect traditional standards of luxury and comfort in accommodation (Boo, 1990). Figgis suggests that ecotourism means medium cost, low key accommodation that is more appropriate to the needs of the Australian domestic market than integrated, and expensive, resort developments. The ecotourist is more interested in the natural/cultural destination itself than seeing the accommodation as the destination. While this may true, some ecotourist accommodation, because of its exclusiveness, remoteness, and high environmental standards, is not inexpensive. Construction costs can be high and staffing, servicing and maintenance difficult and expensive (Kerr, 1991). The Victorian Department of Conservation and Environment (1992) identify 2-3 star quality accommodation as the norm for ecotourists, but

point out that if the destination or experience is unique, very basic accommodation will suffice for brief periods. However, the traditional accommodation star rating provides no information about the environmental or cultural responsibility of the accommodation. The ecotourist is said to want assurances about this. Lane (1990) says that quality criteria need to be developed to establish the credentials of accommodation claiming to be "green". A "green audit" of existing accommodation is one way to do this.

National parks have long been popular destinations for the so called "adventure travel" market. The Outdoor Recreation Council of British Columbia (1988: 3) offers a useful definition:

Adventure travel may be defined as a leisure activity that takes place in an unusual, remote, or wilderness destination and tends to be associated with high levels of involvement and activity by the participants, most of it outdoors. Adventure travellers expect to experience varying degrees of risk, excitement and tranquillity and to be personally tested or stretched in some way. They are explorers of both an outer world, especially the unspoiled, exotic parts of our planet, and an inner world of personal challenge, self-perception and self-mastery.

Activity-based adventure travel is not necessarily environmentally sound, but there are parallels with ecotourism and in many cases an overlap. The commercial advantage of nature-based ecotourism involving adventure activities is that it frequently encourages repeat visits (Shea and Sharp, 1993).

From the viewpoint of this thesis, there are potentially some significant benefits if tourism in national parks draws upon the ecotourism model. Many of the characteristics attributed to ecotourism appear to sit well with the purposes of national parks. These include a focus on education about natural and cultural values (that is, on content rather than the means of tourism), behaving in an ecologically sound manner, protecting natural and cultural values, contributing to environmental research and management, and to the local community. However, the conclusion drawn here is that the sometimes ecotourism emphasis on small numbers, exclusive experience, and remote locations poses problems as the sole model of appropriate tourism for national parks. The evidence is that the majority of visitors to national parks visit heavily used, easily

accessible areas for short term visits of less than a day (Chase, 1987; ESD Working Groups, 1991). For example, in Tasmania, 130,778 visitors came to the Lake St Clair entrance of the Cradle Mountain-Lake St Clair National Park in 1990-91. Only 7,645 of these visitors registered as venturing out for a day length or overnight walk into remoter areas. Although the campground and accommodation area is located within the arrival area and is readily accessible by vehicles, only an approximate 16,000 over-night stays were recorded (Buckman & O'Loughlin, 1991). The same general proportions apply at most other national parks. Freycinet National Park has a reputation as a coastal "holiday" park. Overnight visits to the park were only about 20% of the total number of visits in the 1990-91 period, although this can be attributed partly to lack of accommodation capacity (Buckman & O'Loughlin, 1991). Short term, casual visitors constitute the largest visitor group to all but the remotest national parks. The "everyday" visitors should not be overlooked in the scramble for the ecotourism market. They will probably come in increasing numbers. Moore and Carter (1991: 144) assert that 'the philosophy inherent in many natural resource management plans (quality experience for the few) is not being matched by the effects of increased visitor numbers'.

The thesis argues that it is preferable for the "exclusive" ecotourist market to remain a small component of the total number of visitors to national parks. To give all visitors exclusive, remote experiences in small groups would be impossible logistically, and disastrous environmentally. There is merit in concentrating tourists where they can be managed and their impacts limited (World Tourism Organisation & United Nations Environment Programme [WTO & UNEP], 1992). In many circumstances, concentrating the majority of visitors at a particular site for short term visits may be more efficient and effective in managing and protecting environmental quality (Chase, 1987, ESD Working Groups, 1991). Most tourists are likely to be satisfied with this short-term contact especially if it includes good information and interpretation (Boo, 1990).

The Commonwealth Department of Tourism (1993: 2) cautions that ecotourism is 'as much an ethos as a discrete market segment' and sustainable tourism practices should be the aim of all tourism (Figgis,

1993). Many of the characteristics attributed to ecotourism can be used to develop a broadly based approach to ecologically and culturally sustainable tourism, which is the appropriate spectrum of tourism activity in national parks. No useful purpose is served debating whether the definition of ecotourism can be stretched to cover all park visitors. It is more fruitful to ensure that all tourism use of national parks is ecologically and culturally sustainable, a rewarding experience for visitors which provides them with insights into the environment, and derives a return to maintain and protect the parks. This forms the basis for the goals and objectives for tourism in national parks that are proposed later in the thesis.

#### **4.5 The Impact of Commercial Priorities on Environmental Protection**

We are considering the adoption of a product-like approach. This involves identifying those products of value to the consumer (through research), and then marketing them. One product line that would fit that, we believe, would indeed be the "National Parks experience" (Crombie, 1988: 9).

While tourists, their behaviour, and the experiences they seek, are important in dealing with tourism in national parks, the suppliers and managers of tourism opportunities play a significant role. In the mass tourism market, tourist operators play an obvious role, but there are ecotourist operators as well, and to some extent national park agencies play this role in the public sector. Economic considerations and priorities strongly influence the way tourist operators work and can be a significant determinant in their environmental performance. This section examines influences that the commercial priorities of the tourism industry have on environmental protection and preservation in parks. Arguments for and against commercial operations are examined to highlight the issues which must be addressed in assessing appropriate tourism in parks.

Increasingly, governments are considering privatising facilities and services provided in national parks. There are a number of reasons. One, according to Craik (1991: 126), is that 'the economic value of a resource-based economy has accorded the business community a significant lobbying power'. Another reason is that the ideology of privatisation, which assumes that the private sector can provide goods

and services more effectively than government, is prevalent throughout Australia in governments of all political persuasions. The question is, can conservation in national parks best be managed while providing for tourism and recreation through fully privatised operations? Bella (1987) cautions that standards may slip or prices rise to meet them, thus excluding the less well-off, and that commercial-sector groups will push for heavier use of parks, irrespective of the impacts on environmental values.

Private development in national parks poses potential problems for both conservation and social equity (Bella, 1987). The environmental and equity problems associated with commercial use is, in part, a matter of scale. They can be more pronounced and problematic with large scale commercial tourist operations such as resorts. Here the environmental and social record of commercial operation is not so good (Hong, 1985). However, it is possible for well designed, well implemented, larger scale projects to have less environmental impact than poorly done smaller ones (PATA, 1993). Nevertheless, the imperative to bend or overturn environmental controls becomes greater as the amount of capital investment at risk increases. MacEwen and MacEwen (1982: 87) sum up this fear:

The tourist industry will provide whatever goods and services the public will pay for, whether or not these are necessary for the quiet enjoyment of the parks, and without too much regard to any jarring or harmful effects they may have on the natural environment or the beauty that attracted the visitors in the first place.

Furthermore, they argue, the fragmented nature of the tourism industry and an understandable concern for economic returns, means cumulative impacts and externalities are not often considered by developers. Consequently, the role of the government in protecting the environment and public interest over the long term is seen as critical (Figgis, 1993). The dilemma is not only dealing with environmental impacts but how 'to reconcile any conflict between the pursuit of private profit and the desire for social gains' (Craik, 1991: 87). Social gain and environmental protection are not usually the main agenda of the tourism industry. It does not own the natural and cultural assets on which it relies so heavily, leading to a "selling"

mentality rather than a sense of responsibility and stewardship for these assets (PATA, 1992).

The social benefits or problems associated with commercial development in natural areas, such as national parks, are often overlooked or given short shrift. However, in isolated communities near parks, and in parks where indigenous people live, it is an important consideration. The danger to communities and local areas is that potential investors often lack sensitivity to local environmental and social values (WTO & UNEP, 1992).

Opponents of commercial development in national parks fear the profit imperative will outweigh protection of the environment. Businesses can easily extract large profits from short term tourist development in natural areas without the development being environmentally sustainable (Buckley and Pannell, 1990). Chase (1987: 389) argues that 'there is not enough money in (natural preservation) to ensure that entrepreneurs working at preservation will earn a profit. As ecological change is very slow, sometimes taking decades to become apparent, management requires a very long time horizon - far longer than is usually perceived by the heads of private corporations, who usually are concerned with the next quarterly statement'. Financial success may result in ecological stress because the numbers of visitors sustainable in ecological terms may not be sufficient to satisfy economic needs (Boo, 1990). On the other hand, Jacobs (1993: 5) argues more optimistically that 'environmental improvement will bring economic success, and environment failure will bring economic failure'.

While some scarce natural resources may be preserved because of their economic value for tourism, conservation of areas that are not of value to tourism is not guaranteed by the price mechanism approach (Cosijn, 1990). Bella (1987) argues that engaging in profitable activities in or adjacent to national parks is, in itself, acceptable provided that the natural environment is not threatened. Acknowledging this will, she argues, broaden the support base for national parks particularly if the more progressive members of the business community can be enlisted to undertake the development.

There is a range of "commercial" activities that could occur in parks. Park management agencies trade commercially when they apply fees and charges or sell products such as posters, maps and interpretive material. "Friends" groups and other volunteer organisations sometimes engage in commercial activity to raise funds for park related purposes. This is a "not for profit" form of commerce. Profit making, commercially run activities (for example, walking tours) and commercially developed or run facilities and infrastructure (for example, accommodation, kiosks) also can occur in parks. For many conservationists, concerned not only about the local environmental impacts of a development but commercialism per se, commercial development in national parks is unacceptable simply because it is "commercial" (McKercher, 1991[a]). The crux of their concern is usually the profit imperative and the possible compromising of environmental standards. The evidence for problems caused by commercial development certainly supports many of their concerns. However, many of the same activities and developments can be, and are, undertaken in national parks in a non-profit sense with the same or worse environmental consequences. For example, unsupervised, independent walkers in Tasmanian wilderness areas have at least the same impacts as those in a commercial guided party. Until recently, these have not met with the same scrutiny and disapproval. Frequently, commercial operators, particularly ecotourist operators using remoter areas, are subject to much more stringent controls on party size, rubbish removal, fire safety, hygiene and the like than independent "unlicensed" members of the public. These operators argue that they should be treated at least equitably with the unlicensed general public (Outdoor Recreation Council of British Columbia, 1988). Tour guides argue that, in sensitive areas, eco-tourists led by licensed guides do far less damage than unsupervised independent visitors.

Development of facilities and infrastructure in national parks, whether for profit or not, generates considerable debate. Concerns about commercial activities, such as guided tours, which do not rely on permanent or intrusive infrastructure are generally less pronounced. Some argue that no development should take place within the national park, since such developments, particularly large scale resorts, can be at odds with the conservation purposes of the parks (ESD

Working Groups, 1991; Figgis, 1993). Figgis's (1993) vision for the future is that tourist development will be located outside national parks, preferably in nearby towns. While Boo (1990) believes that generally facilities should be located outside parks, bringing benefits to nearby communities, she acknowledges that there are circumstances where this may not be feasible or ignores the needs of visitors. Porter (1989) also supports the general exclusion of tourist developments from national parks but sees reasons of size and remoteness of a park as a basis for some exceptions. In effect, the emphasis, except in remote areas, is to promote "day" visitors to parks who return to their permanent accommodation elsewhere each evening. Camping in tents is often viewed more leniently, being seen as lower in impact, and transient. However, the environmental implications are not so clear cut. Michael Hackett (1991), the developer of the Kingfisher Bay resort in the Fraser Island World Heritage Area, questions an approach that permits thousands of independent visitors to camp (and defecate) indiscriminately up and down the coast of Fraser Island, but excludes permanent accommodation from national parks. The impacts of permanent accommodation, he says, can be much better controlled through site hardening and high standards of sewage treatment. Development inside parks may be preferable because it is likely to be subject to more stringent controls and co-ordinated planning than that outside parks (ESD Working Groups, 1991; Bella, 1987).

Developments such as roofed (i.e., permanent) accommodation, kiosks, restaurants, roads and parking areas are sometimes opposed as inappropriate in a national park (McKercher, 1991[b]). The "Disneyfication" of a visitor zone, where a theme park atmosphere prevails, is often feared. The evidence in places such as Yosemite Valley in the US lends weight to this fear. Frequently, prime sites for development, from the point of view of commercial developers, and visitors, are seen by conservationists and park managers as too vulnerable for such developments to be approved. The concern of Glick (1991: 68) is that tourism will 'swap many of the nation's crown jewels for dime store baubles'. There is a risk that development in national parks will become nothing more than 'discos in paradise' (Figgis, 1993: 10). Wood (1992) expresses the fear that the mass tourism industry will hijack eco-tourism and commodify it. This could happen,



particularly if development is designed to meet present demand without considering long range values (Darling & Eichhorn, 1969).

There is evidence that visitors accept the limited modifications to the environment caused by provision of services and facilities when they are located at the fringe or arrival areas, but reject such development at the core (Martin, McCool & Lucas, 1989). Development in core areas can mean major visual, noise, weed and disease disturbance, and severance of wildlife movements along access corridors, fragmentation of environmentally sensitive areas, and higher risks associated with managing power, water, sewerage and waste disposal (ESD Working Groups, 1991). As a general principle, Martin, McCool & Lucas (1989) argue that development should be located at the fringe of a park, just inside or just outside the boundary, rather than in the core. It should be noted that the boundaries of national parks are almost never determined by environmental criteria alone. Often, they are determined merely by a "line of least resistance", such as the boundary between Crown land and private land, or because degraded and unprofitable private land can readily be bought (Pigram, 1993).

Park managers rely on regulatory mechanisms to control and direct development, requiring environmental impact assessments, prescribing development requirements in management plans and in licences and leases. In practice, lack of expertise or bureaucratic and political will means that regulatory mechanisms are sometimes ineffectively enforced or even ignored. Although they often argue that development can be carried out sensitively, developers are generally not keen on regulation. The industry argues for removal of impediments to profitability such as regulation, but at the same time calls for government assistance for things such promotion and marketing. Craik (1991: 136) says that 'their primary motive is to get around the system rather than altruistically endorse it'. The constant pressure from some segments of the industry to effect profit without regulation is one reason that conservation groups doubt the environmental credentials of the industry.

Park managers often have the same doubts. Moore and Carter (1991: 144) list resource managers' concerns that commercial operators:

- want assurances of access without clients at the ready;
- do not understand the conservation ethic;
- do not provide visitors with the right information;
- do not understand the need to control visitors and activities;
- do not understand resource fragility;
- are not sympathetic to the cultural significance of aboriginal sites and the management of national parks; and
- are too influenced by the profit motive.

On the other hand, commercial operators believe that resource managers do not understand:

- the profit imperative;
- the long lead time to foster and develop a target market (particularly international);
- the cost of developing and servicing this market on an ongoing basis;
- the cost of establishing management operations;
- the cost of providing minimal service infrastructure in remote locations;
- the motivations and needs of travellers and the support required by tour operators to assist the customer to understand the resource;
- the long lead time often experienced to receive approvals; and
- the cost of finance (Moore and Carter, 1991: 144).

The "weight of red tape" is seen to slow down or prevent realisation of development potential. This view has political support. Canadian Conservative MP, Gordon Taylor, argued the need to 'encourage entrepreneurs to build accommodation and protect the environment in our national parks. ... Capital is waiting to be used if we turn out the red light and turn on the green' (quoted in Bella, 1987: 150).

A number of conclusions are drawn from this discussion on commercial priorities and environmental protection. The first is that "commercial" operations need not inevitably be a problem, provided they do not harm park values or the experiences of visitors. All tourism in parks, commercial or otherwise, should have the same goals. Nevertheless, poorly handled, commercial operations in parks could pose serious problems. To protect national park values, development should operate within a framework of limits. Otherwise, decisions made in particular cases can easily trade off environmental damage against a commercial or other benefit, resulting in incremental and irreversible loss of environmental values. One step towards a solution is to develop a long term vision of how tourism will be developed, promoted, and controlled in the national parks (Boo, 1991).

Another conclusion is that the issue of whether to locate development in the park should be clarified. Identifying if the development is directly national park related or merely using the park environment as a pleasant, but incidental backdrop is important. For example, it should be made clear whether accommodation is part of the national park "ambience" and learning experience or incidental to it (Office of Tourism Industry Development, 1993). Providing visitors with accommodation necessary to support their visit is one thing. Providing accommodation as the attraction because it happens to be in a pleasant setting is quite another. In a national park, this distinction is important to avoid development demands that could damage the character and values of the park.

Most visitors to national parks appear happy using very little of the park area. Therefore, taking into account matters such as environmental and cultural sensitivity and significance, and the practicalities of access and service provision, development zones for visitor facilities can be designated. These may or may not be in the national park. Development appropriate for these zones should be identified. Provided the zoning for visitor areas was carefully identified in the first place, the area should be able to accept some environmental modifications but these should be carefully controlled and limited in extent. The controls and limitations are very necessary if the visitor area is to retain characteristics that warrant visitors coming, but not so limited that the intended zoning use cannot be realised. Site specific decisions about locating facilities and infrastructure should be related to the actual circumstances applying to the particular national park. Explicit criteria for permitting or denying development of visitor facilities within parks should be developed.

#### **4.6 Partnerships Between Tourism and Environmental Protection**

The adoption of a "green" approach to business is becoming more prevalent. Although the credibility of some claims can be questioned, with so many products now using a "green" marketing image, genuine and beneficial environmental approaches are being developed. This

can also apply to national parks. Beneficial relationships are being developed between tourism operators and the natural areas they use, despite the threats that tourism could pose to national parks.

There are a number of ways the tourism industry can support environmental protection in national parks. One is through joint initiatives of the public, private and volunteer sectors (Countryside Commission et al, 1989). There are groups such as the British Trust for Conservation Volunteers who run what are in effect eco-tours where volunteers carry out conservation works (Cohen, 1990).

Volunteer or not, the nature tourist is increasingly interested in participating in work that contributes to park improvement (Boo, 1990). Corporate sponsorship can support these programs. Some tourism operators now allocate a portion of their income to conservation works in the areas they use, or to conservation groups (Wood, 1991). Preece and Van Oosterzee (1991), tour operators themselves, suggest contributions to research, education, or management. They propose applying an "ecological tax" to tourism. Contributions from the tourism industry could fund ecological studies or the development and implementation of management plans (Boo, 1990).

While smaller companies often contribute more than the larger tour operators, large companies do contribute to conservation programs (Boo, 1990). Ramada International and American Express ran a program in 1990 that contributed a portion of each hotel bill to the Nature Conservancy. Ramada International's corporate image is being marketed as 'the hotelier of environmental integrity' (D'Amore, 1992: 259). D'Amore also cites the savings that Hyatt Hotels makes annually from its environmental awareness and recycling program.

Shurcliff & Williams (1991) believe the idea that commercial operators should contribute to the costs of managing community resources they use is widely accepted. However, only a small proportion of the tourism industry in Australia contributes meaningful amounts to such environmental protection. More frequently, operators do not budget for the "externalities", funded by the taxpayer, to maintain their use of the natural environment. The ESD Working Groups (1991) note that

charging commercial developers the full costs of their development impacts on social and environmental conditions could limit the demand for development. They see this as a positive instrument to control development and prevent what critics sometimes refer to as freeloading. In other words, dealing with environmental and social impacts is an integral part of business costs and not an add-on penalty to the cost of development in national parks (PATA, 1992).

The Ecotourism Society (1993: 11) proposes the following objectives for ecotourism operators to make a positive contribution:

- Put tourism-generated revenues into the hands of local environmental organisations and protected area management agencies for conservation initiatives;
- Ensure that tourism revenues cover the costs for the management of tourism on wild lands and protected areas; and
- Help park and protected areas generate revenue, thereby providing economic impetus to a conservation agenda on the national level in destination countries.

Because nature based or ecotourist accommodation in or near national parks tends to be modest in scale and low key, Figgis (1993) believes there are more opportunities for local investors. In some cases, relatively low levels of capital investment may be required, providing opportunities for local communities to become service providers (Dept of Conservation and Environment, 1992). However, Kerr (1991) cautions that considerable capital investment is sometimes required. Large developments which claim to be ecotourism developments, such as Kingfisher Bay on Fraser Island, obviously require major investment of development capital.

One of the frequently claimed benefits of tourism is its employment generating attributes. Because many national parks and their nearby communities are in relatively isolated areas with limited employment opportunities, such a benefit would be welcome. This is the case in both developing countries and rural areas near national parks in developed countries. Tourism is a labour intensive industry (Mercer, 1991), but Mercer and Craik (1991) both warn that the jobs are predominantly short term, low-skilled, frequently part-time and insecure because of their seasonal nature, and often poorly paid. On the other hand, the industry provides entry-level opportunities for

people in need of a job (Glick, 1991). 'The accessibility of the tourism industry to such traditionally marginalised labour groups could be seen as an example for sustainable employment development in other industry sectors' (ESD Working Groups, 1991: 28). However, tourism will not stop young people drifting to urban areas from the rural communities near national parks unless reasonably well paid, year round employment is available (MacEwen & MacEwen, 1982). Unfortunately, the economic benefits of tourism development, including employment opportunities, may not occur locally, but at a distance in regional centres or capital cities (Machlis & Tichnell, 1985).

Despite the limitations of the type and location of jobs created, tourism is undoubtedly a major creator of employment (Bureau of Tourism Research, 1993). The potential for tourism in national parks to create jobs and economic benefits in both the local and wider community exists. That national parks are dispersed away from the major urban centres means, to some degree, jobs and income will also be dispersed (Dept of Conservation and Environment, 1992). It was suggested previously that the emphasis of ecotourism or, more generally, ecologically sustainable tourism in national parks, should be on content, with education, information and direct experience playing a major role. Consequently, at least some of these jobs will need to be highly skilled, for example requiring an understanding of the park and the values that attract tourists to it, and an ability to communicate that understanding to visitors. Guide training programs in local communities could develop park employment opportunities for them (Boo, 1990).

Another suggested benefit of tourism to natural areas is that, particularly in developing countries, it will encourage support for conservation. Reserves will be declared to ensure opportunities to capitalise on this type of tourism (Boo, 1990). There are clear examples of this in Central and Southern America (Lindberg, 1991). It is also witnessed by the increase in the number of private conservation reserves capitalising on tourism. On the other hand, there is some danger in declaring national parks for their potential to generate tourism revenue. In the short term, the interests of environmental protection may appear to be well served. In the longer term, a primary

focus on the economic benefits of tourism could mean that it becomes a secondary and incidental factor. The main objective may eventually become mass tourism rather than environmental protection married with ecologically sustainable tourism (WTO & UNEP, 1992). This could undermine the integrity of the area as a national park.

#### 4.7 Conclusions

All visitors to national parks are tourists. They come with a variety of preferences and expectations. At the moment, there is an increasing convergence between the interests and expectations of many tourists and the goals of ensuring environmental protection and preservation. Yet it is obvious that there are fashions in the features, destinations and experiences sought by tourists. The fickle nature of tourism can threaten many of the values for which national parks are established if parks are merely seen as the raw material for tourism development, to be moulded and remoulded to meet each new trend. Furthermore, tourist destinations frequently undergo a cycle of discovery, development, peak and decline. When national parks are the destination, they must be protected from the negative impacts of such a cycle. The perspective of tourism developers is frequently short term compared to the potential impacts of their activities on parks. Consequently, the tourism industry cannot be relied upon to ensure protection of park values.

Parks should be recognised as places that are inherently attractive, not places where attractions are "invented". Often, the special character of a park is that it is undeveloped, not that it is ripe for development. Homogenisation of the park environment into a replica of everywhere else through inappropriate tourism development will destroy the values that made it a tourist destination in the first place. Neither should incremental development and tourism (recreational) succession be allowed to happen inadvertently or by stealth. The character of a park that is worthy of protection should be identified first. Then, tourism development which respects and complements that character can be planned, and progressively developed.

Ecotourism is the current environmentally "friendly face" of tourism. A key element of ecotourism is an emphasis on content. Education on the values of a place visited, combined with environmental and cultural responsibility and sustainability are fundamental to ecotourism. These attributes of ecotourism should characterise tourism development in national parks. However the sometimes ecotourism emphasis on small numbers and remote locations is not appropriate for all visitors or for many parts of a national park. The majority of tourists are satisfied visiting more readily accessible locations and are comfortable with larger numbers of people. These tourists should still experience a focus on content during their visit. Tourism opportunities provided for them must not undermine the values they should be encouraged to experience. Nor should parks provide tourism developments that are only incidentally, if at all, based upon the park's environmental and recreational values. Instead, tourism in national parks should be positively and directly related to park values. Tourism development should be environmentally, culturally, and recreationally sustainable. It should make a positive, and direct, contribution to protection and maintenance of park values.

Private sector operations for profit need not be in conflict with maintenance of park values but ecologically short term investment time frames, and profit imperatives, can lead to pressures to limit costs, cut corners in standards, and ignore external costs and hidden subsidies. These are potential threats to developing appropriate, sustainable tourism in national parks. It should be recognised that non-profit tourism development also can have negative impacts on a park. Consequently, tourism developments should be strictly controlled, and protection of park values must have paramount consideration.

Positive benefits can result from encouraging responsible tourism operators and tourism developments. Operators offering authentic and educational experiences, using good design, sound environmental and cultural practices, and responsible behaviour, can reduce tourism impacts. Some developers recognise the importance of protecting the national park values upon which their business is built. With cooperation, some types of tourism development can contribute to the



protection and maintenance of the park. It may also contribute to job creation for nearby communities. Most importantly, it will provide tourists and the nearby community with a greater understanding and appreciation of the park and its values.

The above conclusions highlight the need for a framework to assess appropriate tourism in parks, and suggest some of the content for it. The framework should limit the effects of tourism fashion, short term economic demands, and homogenisation of a park's character. It should encourage an emphasis on enjoyment and education about park values, environmental and cultural responsibility, environmental protection, and economic benefits to the community.

## Chapter 5 - Management Responses to Tourism in Parks

The problems of assessing appropriate tourism in national parks occurs not just in Tasmania. The differences in values and the lack of clarity about the purposes of national parks are widespread. Attempts have been made to deal with the problems, but the evidence suggests mixed success. This chapter examines the frequently piecemeal management responses to dealing with tourism activities and development in parks. It reviews some of the solutions that have been proposed.

### 5.1 The Tyranny of Small Decisions

Current development pressures and the lack of precise policies on park tourism compound the confusion about the role of national parks. The result is that generally this pressure arises and is dealt with on a local rather than a regional or state-wide basis. Development tends not only to be viewed in spatial isolation but also to ignore the long term perspective. This temporal blind spot may ignore ecological time while focussing on the time frame for investment returns or government funding allocations. As a consequence, the cumulative effect of individual, local development decisions, sometimes referred to as "the tyranny of small decisions", is not recognised. As the Ecologically Sustainable Development (ESD) Working Groups (1991: 25) warn, 'the process of change can be so subtle as to give only weak indications of future outcomes. By the time the magnitude of the change registers, it may be too late to stop or modify the process or lessen its impacts'. This effect can be observed in urban and rural areas, is common along the coastline, and threatens especially the more popular national parks.

Craik (1991) is particularly scathing of this tyranny in the development of the Queensland coastline where an ad hoc, case by case basis for decision making has frequently occurred. The result, says Relph (1976: 79) quoting Gordon Cullen, is that 'we appear to be forsaking nodal points for a thinly spread coast-to coast continuity of people, food, power and entertainment; a universal wasteland ... a chromium-plated wasteland'.

The total area of "natural" environments is gradually eroded in a piecemeal fashion (Mercer, 1991) by site specific assessment that does not take into account wider regional determinants about the appropriate use of the site and the future character of the area (ESD Working Groups, 1991). If decisions set in train cumulative processes or permanently alter the environment they can become irreversible (Winpenny, 1991). Some environments, and the tourism experiences they provide, cannot be recreated once they are destroyed as in, for example, the destruction of wilderness values (Stankey, 1979). Part of the problem is that good intentions to control the excesses of tourism are constantly undermined by pragmatic political and economic decisions (Craik, 1991).

Orr and Hill (1978) argue that it ignores the evidence to believe that governments and bureaucracies can unite around the goal of protecting the environment. The government tools of bureaucratic regulation and fiat are inadequate, partly because government agencies are often 'overly influenced by the very groups they supposedly regulate' (Orr & Hill, 1978: 463). There is a tendency to short circuit public consultation and planning procedures to maximise investment opportunities. This can favour developers and entrepreneurs at the expense of the public interest (Craik, 1991).

Beside the political imperatives which control government agency action, the reason for such piecemeal action by bureaucracy is frequently the lack of time, resources, or skills to prepare policy and think strategically. Instead, action is defensive and reactive (Livingston, 1981). The tyranny of small decisions can be a form of elitism because poor management, and unco-ordinated, piecemeal decision making frustrate the desires of majorities and minorities alike (MacEwen & MacEwen, 1982).

To avoid these problems, the ESD Working Groups (1991) call for a systematic approach to determining which tourist experiences and services should be available, thus avoiding oversupply, inappropriate supply or undermining of economic viability. A number of management frameworks have been developed which attempt such a systematic approach. These are reviewed briefly later in the chapter.

Another important but frequently overlooked danger of the tyranny of small decisions is the loss of the essential character of a place. This character may be somewhat intangible, but one that contributes to the value and significance of a place. However tangible, once gone the loss is readily apparent. Seddon (1979: 67) argues that it is important to 'resist the effects of homogenising technology, to individuate by understanding and clarifying the locally distinctive - in short by respecting the *genius loci*'.

Elliot (1989: 192) refers to places which 'exhibit a complex structural harmony'. Seamon (1984), using a phenomenological approach, argues that it is important to view a place in a holistic way so that the parts are not lost or disassembled. He identifies the importance of atmosphere, character, and sense of place. There are 'certain essential existential qualities of environment, landscape and building which can be described in qualitative, interpretive fashion' (Seamon, 1984: 1). He argues for three foci for this kind of study:

- a phenomenology of landscape;
- a phenomenology of environmental experience and behaviour;  
and
- a phenomenology of environmental and architectural aesthetics.

Clawson and Knetsch (1966) point out that national parks cannot be reduced to a disjointed series of viewing spots and major features, ignoring the holistic web of interconnectedness that gives them an integrity as places.

Relph (1976: 64) uses the term "authenticity", which means 'genuine, unadulterated, without hypocrisy, and honest to itself, not just in terms of superficial characteristics, but at depth'. Sale (1985: 48) argues that 'understanding place is neither nostalgic nor utopian', and Relph cautions that the identity of a place cannot be distilled into a brief factual description. Space is not uniform, but differentiated by significance, according to Relph. Consequently, development cannot be located just anywhere, without undermining and homogenising the significance of places. Places "become" and it is partly through

becoming that their authenticity is established. For this reason, the history of a place gives some pointers to its authentic sense of place. At the same time it exposes a place to the threats of "disneyfication" or "museumisation" as Relph calls them. They result from mixing history, myth, reality and fantasy in a surreal fashion to create synthetic places. Authenticity is lost because 'museumised places are almost inevitably made suitably tidy and bowdlerised to correspond with the dream image of an immutable past' (Relph, 1976: 101).

Lucas (1992: 52) says that 'landscape quality depends on a large number of factors which, in themselves and in the way they interrelate with each other to form the whole, will create different types of landscapes'. The criteria of quality and integrity are both suggested by Lucas as important in defining the character of a place. Integrity also refers to the holistic qualities of an area. While acknowledging that there is no simple formula for assessing quality and integrity, Lucas argues that an attempt should be made in a systematic way. The quality, integrity and authenticity of a park are experienced, according to Livingston (1981: 100), in a way that is 'entirely qualitative, not measurable, not rational'. However, without attempting to quantify these characteristics in some way, they are in danger of being lost. Seamon (1984) calls this process a phenomenology of environmental experience which describes the ways people reach out and make contact with the world.

There is vigorous debate, and dissension, on the concept of "place" including its meaning in changing societies, the "global community" and post-modern consciousness. It is beyond the scope of this thesis to examine that debate. What is relevant is that national parks and localities within them should not be viewed simply in reductionist terms, when there are holistic qualities of places that are valued as significant by the community. A community derived and enunciated statement of those valued qualities and characteristics is necessary if they are to be protected from "death by a thousand cuts". Community support and ownership of the values identified is fundamental if the character of a place is to be maintained and protected (Robe Tourism Working Party, undated).

The idea is not new. Many planning documents and tourism strategies have sought to identify such characteristics as the guiding principles for any development. Sometimes defined as "desired character" (Kangaroo Island Tourism Working Party, 1991; Robe Tourism Working Party, undated; PPK Planning, 1993), the distillation of the ideals and aspirations for an area is the important first step in setting development objectives and strategies. The Queensland National Parks and Wildlife Service (1991) has developed character categories based on the Recreation Opportunity Spectrum. Originally they used categories of place (wilderness, primitive and so on) but now rely on the character of experience on a scale from adventure and challenge to change of normal routine and surroundings. These categories are then described by criteria for environmental modification, access, management input, visitor services and amenities. In Tasmania, the Battery Point Planning Scheme 1979 (Corporation of the City of Hobart, 1979) includes a statement of "Intent" that serves a similar purpose. "Statements of Desired Future Character" are included in the City of Hobart Planning Scheme 1982 (Corporation of the City of Hobart, 1991).

National parks in Tasmania do not have clearly enunciated goal statements for the future character of the park. While the values of parks are sometimes identified in management plans, a vision for the future of the park's essential character or characters usually is not. Without such a vision, the tyranny of small decisions remains a potentially serious threat to a park's integrity.

In summary, the problem is that ad hoc decision making inherent in the tyranny of small decisions does not include a long term perspective. Such a decision making process overlooks holistic properties. The richness of environmental variety is eroded, species disappear incrementally, the variety and quality of tourism experiences are diminished and the unique or special character of places is lost. A decision making framework would help avoid this.

## 5.2 Management Approaches

The fundamental questions for park managers to resolve are what forms of tourism are environmentally appropriate, and to what extent

the uses of national parks for these purposes are acceptable. These questions have proved difficult and very contentious. The worldwide problem of balancing use and preservation reflects a lack of policy guidelines (Machlis and Tichnell, 1985). In the face of this problem, Bramley and Carter (1991: 109) suggest 'a policy framework is needed which clearly indicates how sustainable tourism can result within or adjacent to environmentally sensitive areas'.

The difficulty is to manage tourist use of park "resources" while maintaining the resource in perpetuity. There is an inherent need for the national park resource to remain at least relatively intact since it is central to the economic base of the tourism industry if it is to continue attracting tourists to that location (Buckley & Pannell, 1990; Boo, 1991). Unfortunately, relatively intact may not necessarily mean environmentally sustainable in the long term. A superficial appearance of environmental stability can conceal long term decline. Darling and Eichhorn (1969) argue that for a use of a national park to be legitimate it should place perpetuation of ecological well being and natural scenery as the primary overriding objective. Figgis (1993) also argues that full protection of the basic resource is fundamental.

On the other hand, protection cannot effectively be achieved if inadequate and superficial analysis of the issues relating to visitor activities and facilities is undertaken (Graham, Nilsen, & Payne, 1988). While acknowledging the importance of the ecological approach, Lusigi (1978) expresses concern about a scant regard for people. Their needs and expectations have to be addressed. Without a mutual awareness of the long term implications of use, conflict between users and managers can result. The values of users and managers often clash because, 'whereas visitors seek unimpeded experience and satisfaction, managers are more preoccupied with the entrusted mandate to strike a balance between environmental preservation and user perturbation' (Chi Yung, 1989: 22).

The conclusion drawn here is that there should be an emphasis not only on research and monitoring of environmental sustainability, but also on the development of education and information programs to ensure users are well informed of their potential impacts. It is also

necessary to understand and respond to the issues important to visitors, including not just the types of activities and facilities provided, but also the experiences they seek. These requirements are incorporated into the strategies proposed in the framework developed in Chapter 6.

A number of frameworks have been developed to manage use and deal with the impacts of users on each other and on the environment. Chi Yung (1989) identifies three groups of visitor management measures. These range from what he terms the soft measures of influencing visitor behaviour, through intermediate measures that focus on redistributing use, to regimenting measures such as rationing use. Buckley and Pannell (1990: 29) identify four categories of management action as 'regulation and surveillance, incentives, protection, and education'. The more well known management approaches to dealing with recreation and tourism in national parks are reviewed below and their strengths and weaknesses identified.

### **5.3.1 Carrying Capacity**

For many years the concept of "carrying capacity" has been applied to planning outdoor recreation and tourism activities. The underlying premise is that there is an optimum level at which a recreational resource can be used without degrading the resource or the benefits to be accrued from it by the users. Furthermore, the concept recognises that use of an area means some change. The ESD Working Groups (1991) identify environmental and social dimensions of carrying capacity. Boden (1977) proposes ecological, physical or design, and perceptual or psychological aspects of carrying capacity. Carrying capacity can be expressed in terms of spatial, psychological, service, and environmental capacities (Pitts, 1971). While it can be applied as a prescriptive measure, carrying capacity is a judgemental and value laden concept rather than an inherent physical property of an area (Zube et al, 1980).

The carrying capacity approach is no longer in much favour. The ESD Working Groups (1991) argue that it has proved impossible to accurately determine carrying capacity or visitor impacts. Furthermore,



carrying capacity varies according to management actions such as hardening sites, controlling numbers, and the like (Boo, 1990). Consequently, the ESD Working Groups dismiss the approach as seriously limited in usefulness. Boo (1990: 23) summarises the problem nicely when she says that 'the difficulty in establishing a carrying capacity for a protected area lies in the fact that it is simply not possible to determine an absolute empirical optimum and that it cannot be gauged by the point of marginal returns'.

### **5.3.2 The Recreation Opportunity Spectrum**

The Recreation Opportunity Spectrum (ROS) deals with recreational use from a different perspective. Its starting point is identification of opportunities for activities, in recreational settings, to meet desired experiences (Driver et al, 1987). People seeking different recreational opportunities can be informed of these settings and make their recreational choices accordingly (Clark, 1982). Frequently, it is argued that this approach should be the planning framework for the provision of recreation and tourism opportunities in national parks. The Resource Assessment Commission (1992) viewed ROS as a useful tool but they cautioned that more integrated management processes may be needed when the technique is applied across land management jurisdictions and competing resource-use objectives. Van Oosterzee (1984) argues that the priority of zoning in national parks should be environmental protection not recreation or tourism. She believes the appropriate types of opportunities for recreation and their spatial location within a national park should be determined by their relative innocuousness to environmental and conservation values. Explicit management objectives are fundamental to using the ROS successfully (Clark, 1982). Too often, the need for these is overlooked.

It is important that the ROS be applied regionally, not just locally. Invariably in a regional context, the ROS must be tempered by a variety of management objectives across a variety of management regimes. In the regional context, national parks are important for their national or state environmental significance. They may also have international significance as do the national parks which make up the Tasmanian Wilderness World Heritage Area. In the case of national parks, there

should be a primary focus on protecting and preserving the natural and cultural features and systems they contain. This sieves many of the options in the opportunity spectrum out of consideration within a national park. Whatever priority is applied, there should be clear definitions and limitations on the types of setting that a national park may contribute to the opportunity spectrum. While there will be generic constraints and opportunities presented by the legislative status of a national park, there will also be specific, distinct issues for each park that must be evaluated specifically for that park. A level of tourism development that maximises benefits and minimises negative impacts should be the aim (Boo, 1990). If these requirements are dealt with comprehensively, the ROS can be applied as one component of national park planning.

### 5.3.3 Limits of Acceptable Change

The limitations of the carrying capacity approach and the ROS, and the 'range of possibilities depending upon the desired social and biophysical "outcomes" for the area in question' (Mercer, 1991: 144) has led to development of the "Limits of Acceptable Change" (LAC) framework. The LAC is derived from the earlier carrying capacity concept but with an intended emphasis on the conditions desired for an area rather than the amount of use it can tolerate (Stankey et al, 1985). It also includes elements of the ROS. The framework is meant to focus on the condition of the environmental setting, and how much change is acceptable (Lipscombe, 1993).

The LAC process:

- specifies acceptable resource and social conditions;
- analyses the relationship between existing conditions and the acceptable conditions
- identifies actions necessary to achieve acceptable conditions; and
- programs monitoring and evaluation (Stankey et al, 1985).

Measurable indicators of the environmental condition of the area must be identified, the acceptable changes to the area must be agreed upon by defining their limits, the management actions to achieve or maintain

these conditions need to be determined, and the limits must be monitored regularly to ensure they are not exceeded.

Choosing the relevant indicators and collecting enough ecological information to provide baseline information is difficult (ESD Working Groups, 1991). This poses scientific challenges but the choice of indicators also depends on what changes are deemed significant. Determining significance and the degree of acceptable change depends upon personal and cultural values and assumptions. Although the LAC is meant to be premised on desired conditions, in practice the process tends to adopt a technical and managerial approach in determining the limits. From the perspective of this thesis, it is not sufficiently clear about the setting of overall goals. In the absence of a management plan, lack of clear purposes and goals for a park make it difficult to determine significance and the direction and limits of change. The problem can be somewhat remedied when a management plan is eventually prepared. However, it is argued here that significance, and the values and assumptions underlying it, should be made explicit for each park and be subject to public scrutiny. Goals for the park should be established. In Tasmania this has not usually happened. In any case, values can change. Therefore, the purpose of each park should be periodically and publicly reviewed and formally stated in a gazettal. If a management plan is being prepared, or is already in place (only half of Tasmania's 14 parks have one), the statement of purpose can be reviewed at the same time as the management plan.

In the LAC process, realistically achievable techniques and an ongoing commitment of resources are necessary to maintain a monitoring program that adequately keeps track of the environmental indicators. This commitment may diminish as time goes by, particularly once a development is in place and monitoring is no longer a selling point to get a project approved. In the face of sometimes considerable capital investment, there may be a reluctance to backtrack if monitoring shows the limits of acceptable change are being exceeded. Redefining what is acceptable may prove economically or politically more expedient. Although of some importance for the development of tourism in parks, few baseline studies have been done to monitor changes

resulting from tourism (Boo, 1991). If the LAC framework is applied as a location-specific tool, there is a danger of cumulative regional effects being overlooked (ESD Working Groups, 1991), particularly without overall goals and objectives. Even so, the notion of limits of acceptable change can be used by tourism planning groups to identify and maintain the integrity of the tourism values with which they are dealing (Hill, 1992).

#### **5.3.4 Visitor Activity Management Process**

The Visitor Activity Management Process (VAMP) developed in Canada uses elements of the above approaches. The process attempts to bridge the separation between a research and preservation emphasis, and an emphasis that responds to visitors. Some attempt also is made to understand those who do not visit parks, especially if their reasons have to do with inappropriate park management practices (Ashley, 1989). Because 'there is a substantial difference between managerial and user perceptions about ideal location, designs, facilities, supervision and maintenance' (Graham, Nilsen, & Payne, 1988: 45), a mismatch of expectations and suitability of facilities may result. VAMP gives greater emphasis to the visitor experiences and benefits, rather than focusing on the facility or resource. The approach is overtly marketing orientated, incorporating social science research to determine visitor requirements (Lipscombe, 1993). It is complex to use and not explicit about how value positions are to be dealt with.

#### **5.3.5 Other Approaches**

Dowling (1991) proposes a planning framework for environmentally compatible tourism through the identification of "significant features", "critical areas", and "compatible activities". This type of approach is sometimes used to deal with the recreational component of a general environment impact assessment of development. Such assessments tend to concentrate on localised issues and focus on technical solutions. 'In treating impact assessment as a task, rather than a political issue, the danger is that this circumscribed approach can be manipulated by vested interests to produce certain outcomes' (Craik, 1991: 132).

One proposed solution is to manage the resource to maximise realisation of the potential for visitors without jeopardising what Bramley and Carter (1991) refer to as the "higher order" resource elements. Implicit in this approach is the concept of zoning. Some areas are given full protection and in other areas modification to "lower order" resource elements is permissible. Bramley and Carter (1991: 110) contend that 'if the significance and values of a site/environment can be identified, then tourism activity levels appropriate to resource values and consistent with socio-political values and objectives can be determined'.

This is easier said than done and reflects the same problem that must be faced in all the frameworks outlined previously. It is argued here that setting clear goals for protecting and maintaining significant values is fundamental. Unfortunately, goal setting is often overlooked or poorly handled, with a tendency to focus on the more technical aspects of the management frameworks discussed. Goal setting requires more than just a determination of relative significance. Who should decide what is significant must also be resolved. The proposition put here is that public involvement is necessary.

In the case of national parks, a high level of environmental significance can be presumed, but the debate about what is "appropriate" in the light of this significance still occurs. Bramley and Carter (1991: 110) propose an 'objective and rigorous definition of levels of significance' rather than a concentration on resolution of physical and social impacts. The ESD Working Groups (1991) support this suggestion. Chi Yung (1989) points out that the perception of acceptable environmental impacts of tourist use is largely a subjective matter and difficult to determine. For example, Elliot (1989: 193) suggests that the criteria for defining environmental excellence includes 'such things as complexity, stability, diversity, connectedness, variety, subtlety, intricacy, ingenuity (in some suitably non-intentional sense), fragility, harmony ... grandeur, magnificence, splendour'. Therein lies a definitional nightmare. Furthermore, not everyone agrees that the conflicts can be sorted out within an objective frame of reference. Godfrey-Smith (1979) argues that this presupposes the worth of natural systems rests upon instrumental values, and Hall (1988: 453) notes that

for preservationists, 'compromise in the ecological context, regrettably, is simply another definition for loss'.

In one respect, referring to higher order and lower order elements is an unfortunate choice of words. The concept of splitting the environment into higher and lower order elements could be rejected as fundamentally non-ecological. Every element in an ecosystem is significant to that ecosystem. Furthermore, significance should also deal with wholes, not just elements. As Bridgewater (1993: 36) puts it, 'it is the holistic nature of the area which is critical. Landscape ecological principles ... help clarify the need for integrity of an area, allowing for connectivity between the high quality nodes, dispersed through a (possibly) lower quality matrix'.

Nevertheless, Bramley's and Carter's general contention is supported here. Criteria such as diversity, rarity, and viability should be used to determine significance of different areas within a national park. Areas with less environmental significance may be able to withstand the inevitable environmental modification resulting from tourism activity but the significance of these areas to visitors should also be determined.

### 5.3 Conclusions

The task for the effective management of national parks is to make explicit the relationship between the two strands of the paradoxical mandate, that is, environmental protection and tourism, and to set out the principles for managing them. It is argued here that a clearly enunciated framework for doing this is necessary.

The framework should take a holistic view of assessing appropriate tourism in parks to avoid piecemeal, incremental decision making. To do this, a systematic approach should be identified, which is based on first principles and works towards long term goals. Protecting the special character of the park and places within it should be the aim. The goals should be determined at the outset, identifying the values of the park to be sustained. Other management frameworks tend to focus on particular elements of the problem of managing tourism in parks.

Some acknowledge the importance of management goals and objectives, but none have a sufficiently broad and holistic perspective.

Too frequently, managers, planners, and scientists focus on the methodology of scientific assessment and monitoring, or on the technical implementation of the ROS or LAC frameworks. They ignore or underestimate the cultural and political difficulties inherent in making value judgements about significance. The heated debate about the closure of the Raglan Range track to protect wilderness values in the World Heritage Area of Tasmania is an example. There, the planners made decisions based on an assessment of wilderness significance. Problems have arisen because some local community and recreation groups fundamentally disagree with the values which established that significance. It should be recognised that there will not be complete agreement on significance, particularly when making judgements about appropriate tourism in national parks. No methodology can avoid the value judgements, but it can make them explicit, relying on sufficient support, if not consensus, to allow them to be applied in management.

## Chapter 6.- A Framework For Assessing Appropriate Tourism

### 6.1 The Framework

Providing for tourism in national parks has always meant determining what use is appropriate. Management plans frequently use the term "appropriate" but the difficulty for both managers and users (including tourism developers and operators) is agreeing upon what it means. A clearly enunciated framework for assessing appropriate tourism in national parks is needed to clarify this. It is unrealistic to expect a seamless framework that automatically solves every dispute. However, it could give guidance, particularly to park managers, but also to developers, politicians and the general public. It will bring the issues into clearer focus, and help ensure that the arguments are canvassed and the decisions made transparent. It is important 'to distinguish between disagreements over facts and differences in values and attitudes in those cases when management is complex and contentious' (Resource Assessment Commission, 1992: 9). No methodology eliminates the need to make judgements between different options however.

Development pressure constantly changes because new activities and tourism ideas gain popularity and new recreational technology comes on the market (Canadian Parks Service, 1991). Many such tourism development options will not be compatible with the intention of national parks (Canadian Parks Service, 1991; Tourism South Australia, 1990). Because the new trends cannot be predicted, a clarity about the purpose of national parks and the process for assessing appropriateness is most important. There is a need for flexibility to consider any proposals in the light of the unique attributes of each park, but that 'flexibility should be always in the realm of procedure enlightened by knowledge, and not in principles driven by expediency' (Darling and Eichhorn, 1969: 31). Parks should not be moulded to meet all the variety of desires for experiences, activities, and settings in the community. Rather they provide clearly defined segments of those experiences, activities, and settings derived directly from the values of the parks (Tourism South Australia, 1991).

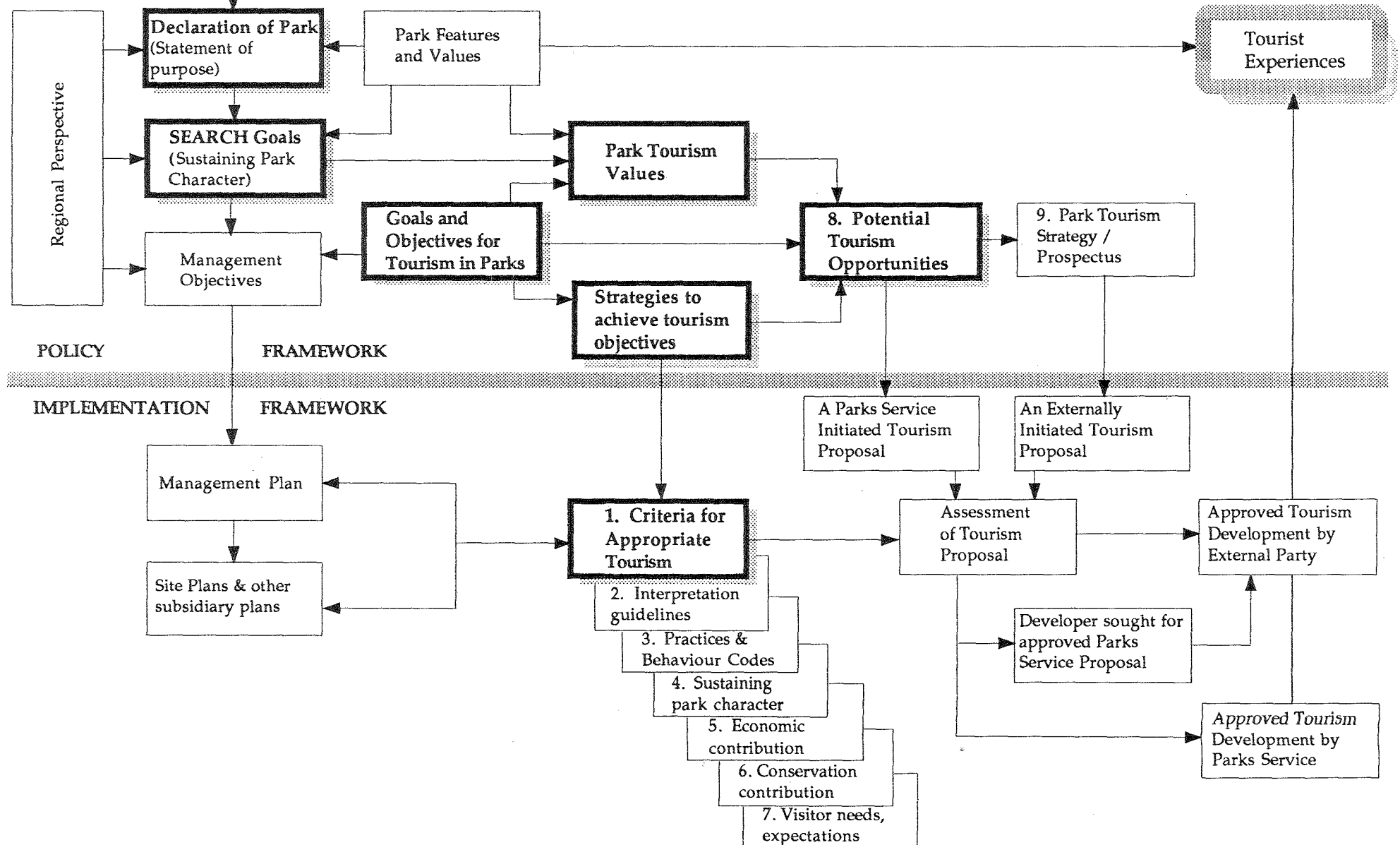


The framework proposed here includes a number of key components. The case for including an explicit definition of a national park in legislation has been made, as has the case for a specific statement of the purpose of each park. The effect that the tyranny of small decisions can have on the character of a park needs to be avoided. Therefore, goals for sustaining a park's character should also be included in the framework. Tourism should be compatible with and subordinate to the above components of the framework. Goals and objectives for such tourism are necessary and the framework provides for this. Strategies to achieve the tourism goals and objectives are included in the framework, which is set out in diagrammatic form in Figure 5. The components of the framework dealt with in some way in the thesis are highlighted by the bold outlined boxes. Other components of the framework provide a background context, such as preparation of management plans and site plans. They are not directly dealt with here. The relevant steps in the proposed framework are as follows.

- Include a clear definition of national parks in legislation.
- Prepare a statement of purpose outlining the features and values of each national park that warranted its reservation.
- Establish goals for sustaining the environmental and recreational character of each park.
- Identify goals and objectives for tourism in national parks.
- Develop strategies to achieve the tourism goals and objectives.

These components are dealt with in turn in the following sections. Their role is discussed and preliminary proposals for the form that they might take are developed. These proposals should be viewed as suggestions which require further development through a process of review by park managers and ultimately the general public. However, for the purposes of the thesis, they test how the framework could work in practice.

Figure 5 Framework for Assessing Appropriate Tourism in National Parks (Boxes in heavy outline denote topics covered in this thesis)



## 6.2 Definition of a National Park

The declaration and practical, ongoing management of national parks requires a reworking of the relevant legislation to reflect contemporary understandings. The review of legislation in Chapter 3 demonstrated this. As a first step, each Australian Act should include a clear and concise definition of a national park.

Governments, legislators, park managers, and conservation groups around the world have, through the IUCN, distilled a definition of national parks that reflects an international understanding and agreement on the concept of parks. Because Australia, and Tasmania, are members of IUCN, the definition of a national park should reflect the scope of the IUCN definition, although it does not need to exactly replicate it. Furthermore, Tasmanian national parks should be seen in the context of the range of reserve categories developed by IUCN. Parks are second only to Scientific Reserves or Strict Nature Reserves in their environmental significance according to the IUCN. That significance should be sufficient to be of state or national importance. This thesis argues that environmental protection and preservation should be given clear primacy in the definition of national parks, not only for environmental values per se, but also as the fundamental, prerequisite "resource" base for sustainable tourism.

The Second World Conference on National Parks (IUCN, 1972: 3) recommended that 'provision be made within or related to park systems for conservation of cultural features, historic areas and buildings'. However, national parks, as opposed to historic parks or sites, are principally intended to protect and preserve natural values, and, consequently, the IUCN definition omits cultural values. These could range from historic cultural landscapes, structures, and artefacts, to living indigenous cultures. For example, inhabited parks occur in Great Britain, Africa, North and South America, and Australia. Indigenous people in Africa, Australia, the United States and Canada are not willing to have parks declared over their traditional lands without a say. In many cases, indigenous people claim rights to manage the land. In the objectives for management that the IUCN provide with their definition of national parks, a reference is made to

taking account of 'the needs of indigenous people, including subsistence hunting, in so far as these will not adversely affect the other objectives of management' (IUCN, quoted in Kelly and Robson, 1993: 45). In Queensland, the *Nature Conservation Act* 1992 designates two categories of national parks that specify respect for Aboriginal traditional culture. However, in both cases, any alteration of ecosystems by current occupation or exploitation, particularly by non-indigenous people, is viewed as unacceptable. This is clearly a somewhat arbitrary distinction between indigenous and non-indigenous people, but it is the general if implicit assumption in all the Australian Acts. It means that national parks should generally reflect environments at the time of European occupation and this is the assumption made here (See Chapter 1).

The consequence is that the IUCN recommends inhabited areas important for conservation be categorised not as national parks but as protected landscapes. The key consideration in deciding the category, assuming similar environmental significance, is the extent of material alteration to the natural landscape. The conceptual difficulty here was referred to in Chapter 1. In virtually all cases, so-called natural landscapes reflect centuries of human habitation and interaction with the land. Ultimately, whether an area falls within the category of national park or protected landscape will be a matter of judgement based on the current occupation patterns and the degree to which they maintain the land and its environmental values.

Allowing that circumstances will require some variation between the States, and drawing on some of the definitions discussed in earlier chapters, the following legislative definition of a national park in Tasmania is proposed.

- (1) A national park is an area of land or water, or combination thereof, of at least state or national significance, reserved in sufficient size (in so far as is possible), and managed to permanently and sustainably protect and preserve, substantially unaltered, or, where necessary, to restore:

- (a) indigenous biotic communities, biological diversity, genetic resources and species, and physiographic features and natural processes; and, where they occur concurrently,
  - (b) cultural features, historic areas, structures and artefacts; and
  - (c) places, however large or small, which contribute to the natural or cultural integrity of the area and the appreciation and understanding thereof.
- (2) To the extent that it is consistent with the cardinal principles set out in (1), a national park is an area which:
- (a) allows for any continuously maintained Aboriginal traditional activities within the park to continue; and
  - (b) provides for visitors to enjoy, learn about and appreciate the features and values of the park through scientific, educational, spiritual, or recreational use.

### 6.3 Statement of Purpose

Although the legislative definition identifies the general purpose and meaning of a national park, each park will have a particular set of reasons for its declaration. The park will have a specific mix, not necessarily all inclusive, of significant biotic communities, biological diversity, genetic resources and species, physiographic features, cultural features, historic areas, structures, and places. The significant features and their values that warrant a national park need to be identified and made explicit. The Act should therefore require that the formal declaration or gazetting of each national park include a statement of purpose setting out a brief summary of the features and values for which the national park was declared. This is somewhat similar to the requirement in the *Queensland Nature Conservation Act 1992* that the interim management intent be specified at the time of declaration (Qld Govt, 1992). In Tasmania, the existing parks were not dealt with in this way but any new parks should be (not many more are likely in Tasmania). Existing parks should have a statement of purpose identified based on their current values. In all cases, the statement of purpose should be reviewed at intervals to ensure that it reflects

contemporary knowledge and community values. The statement of purpose should identify the significant features and values and any priorities for protection and preservation. Discussion and evaluation during the formulation of a new park proposal should highlight the features and values that warrant the park. For both new and existing parks the agreed features and values should be identified formally. During the formulation period, priorities for management of park values may become apparent. If so, the priorities should also be stated formally. If not, these priorities should be determined in the preparation of a management plan, when more detailed analysis of park values should occur.

The values of the park may change over time as knowledge or understanding develops, or as community attitudes change. They are unlikely to be static. The important principle is that the features and values of the park are identified explicitly. Subsequently, periodic review will determine their continued relevance.

A hypothetical example of a statement of purpose is set out below:

The Hypothetical National Park is declared according to the definition of a national park contained in the Act for the following purposes:

- conserve the last remaining substantial area of unmodified dry sclerophyll forest on Hypothetical's east coast;
- protect the forested landscapes and landforms of the Doubtful and Aspect Rivers and the Dismay Rivulet;
- protect the southern grayling, its river habitat and catchment; and
- protect the blind velvet worm and its habitat.

## 6.4 Sustainable Environmental and Recreational Character Goals

Even with the legislative definition of a national park, and a statement of purpose for each park, the phenomenon of the "tyranny of small decisions" can mean that eventually a national park becomes degraded and its values compromised. To ameliorate this problem, a vision of the intended future character of the park should be established at the outset. The essential sense of place, identity, and authentic character or "genius loci" of the park needs to be identified. Some places within the park will also have their own identifiable and valued character.

To maintain the valued character of a national park, the appropriateness of any development proposals must be assessed by taking account of factors such as irreversibility, uncertainty, and non-substitutability (RAC, 1992). This parallels the rationale of the precautionary principle (Young, 1993). Where there is irreconcilable conflict between protecting park character values and providing tourism opportunities, park values must prevail (Countryside Commission & English Tourist Board, 1989). This is the position adopted in the thesis. Consequently, an emphasis on identifying and working towards goals is important. The tourism industry cannot be relied upon to determine these for a national park. The industry operates under different imperatives. Furthermore, and generally, 'current industry strategies are derived from trends rather than a vision ... they will lock the industry into a direction based more on reaction to past events than pursuit of future goals' (PATA, 1992: 18). Such an approach must be unacceptable in national parks.

One measure proposed by this thesis to sustain the sense of place is to establish goals for the future character of the park. Some of the goals for the character of the park will apply to the park as whole. Others may relate to particular places within the park. Without the guidance of such character goals that are sustainable in the long term, even well intended decisions can compound to undermine the values of the park. Sustainable character goals are proposed, grouped into environmental and recreational categories. These provide "sustainable environmental and recreational character" goals for each national park.

This new formulation of goals, proposed by the thesis, can be referred to as SEARCH goals. There are some similarities to a key, though too often overlooked, principle of the Limits of Acceptable Change approach. The LAC framework proposes defining what the limits to change will be. First, however, it is necessary to be clear about what is to be kept and what the goals for the future are. This is what is proposed. The emphasis of SEARCH goals is on setting a vision for the future, by focussing on what is to be kept unchanged, or on actively pursuing change towards a desired goal. Trying to limit change without clear goals and reasons for doing so can have mixed results. The SEARCH goals provide the context in which frameworks such as the ROS and the LAC can be applied. Otherwise, the technical application of these frameworks can occur in a vacuum.

The community must recognise the benefit of these goals if they are to be defended against inappropriate tourism development. Consequently, it is recommended that formulation of the SEARCH goals for a park includes a process of public consultation. The value positions must be adopted within a political context and public consultation will give political support to the goals when they are adopted. If the definition of a national park can be agreed upon, and a national park has a statement of purpose, the SEARCH goals will be somewhat easier to develop. In determining the SEARCH goals for a park, it is necessary to be clear about what is to be sustained, where, for how long, subject to what conditions and for whose benefit (Resource Assessment Commission [RAC], 1992). The goals set will depend on the circumstances in which they are determined and will change over time because of 'changes in community priorities, new information ..., technological developments ..., the development of substitutes for materials ..., and other changes which cannot currently be predicted' (RAC, 1992: 15). In the same way that the community perception of the purposes of national parks changes over time, the SEARCH goals are unlikely to remain static for long periods. What is important is that they be recognised and explicitly stated. Setting long term goals in the face of change presents a paradox. In the case of a national park, the time frame for these goals is intergenerational and, in ecological terms, in perpetuity. At the same time, ecological processes inherently involve change. Therefore, while change will inevitably require



periodic review of the goals, the long term nature of the vision that the goals are intended to sustain should be stressed.

Within a specified period of, say, not more than a year from the declaration of a park, or as soon as possible in the case of an existing park, the Act should require that SEARCH goals for each park be identified through investigation and consultation, and published. The goals should describe concisely and clearly what environmental and recreational characteristics of the national park are valued or desired. They need not be limited to those which will be achieved by maintaining the existing park character. Goals for establishing or re-establishing characteristics through management intervention may also be identified. For example, the goals may be achieved by removal of existing development, or the re-establishment of viable populations of a threatened species. The goals will subsequently need to be quantified, as far as possible, in the park management plan when it is prepared, and subsequently in site and operational plans. As for the LAC, indicators for monitoring and evaluating the achievement of these goals will need to be developed. Any order of precedence applicable to the goals should be identified. Only developments or activities that are fully and readily reversible should be permitted in the park before the SEARCH goals have been determined. Thereafter, the goals must be complied with to guide the management and use of the park. Backed by a clear legislative definition of a national park, the statement of purpose for a park and its SEARCH goals will guide management until a management plan has been prepared. They will serve as interim management objectives. When a management plan is prepared for a park, it should be based on the SEARCH goals.

It is important to be clear about the reasons for setting such goals. The appropriateness of a tourism venture in a national park is not simply an issue of the standard of proposed supporting services and infrastructure, although the environmental and cultural impacts of these can be of serious concern. Too often, appropriateness is only assessed at the site specific level, concentrating on issues concerned with the provision of infrastructure. The focus becomes one of site design, materials and aesthetics, erosion, sewage treatment problems and so on. Instead of an assessment of the broader picture, too

frequently there is an emphasis on immediate physical and social impacts (Bramley and Carter, 1991). All of these issues are important and need to be addressed but there are higher order determinations to be made first. A residential suburb can be well designed, aesthetically pleasing and make use of "ecotechniques" for heating, lighting and sewerage disposal without being appropriate in a national park. This is where the SEARCH goals for the park and the management policies and objectives derived from them will play an important role in sorting out what is appropriate.

Each park will have its own specific attributes and therefore unique SEARCH goals. As a hypothetical example, they could take a form somewhat along the lines set out below.

- (a) To sustain the environmental character of the Hypothetical National Park, the park should be characterised by:
  - maximum indigenous biodiversity;
  - viable populations of all indigenous species;
  - unfettered ecological processes;
  - undisturbed physiographic features; and
  - unpolluted air, land, and water.
- (b) To sustain the recreational character of the Hypothetical National Park, the park will be characterised by:
  - quietness and solitude;
  - an uncrowded atmosphere;
  - contact with undisturbed flora, fauna, and natural processes;
  - views and vistas of undisturbed natural landscapes; and
  - a contrast with the attributes of development in the everyday world.

A narrative explanation could be included along the following lines:

- Maximum indigenous biodiversity: A goal for this national park is to maintain or restore, as completely as possible, the variability of indigenous living organisms and the ecological complexes of which they are a part. This means that the knowledge and understanding of life forms within the park must be developed

and great care taken to ensure no actions are taken which will diminish the biodiversity of the park.

- **Quietness and solitude:** A goal for this national park is that visitors will find the atmosphere of the park, wherever they are, is one of quietness, characterised by the general absence of noise from machinery, electronically amplified sounds, loud voices and the like. The predominant sounds will be the sounds of nature. A visitor will be able to find many places to experience a sense of quietness and solitude, where, even in readily accessible areas, the atmosphere is one of undisturbed nature. This means virtually all the park should be zoned free of the sights and sounds of building complexes, carparking areas, picnic grounds, management facilities, accommodation areas including camping areas, and other signs of human disturbance of the environment. It means that key features and values of the park are not damaged, visually intruded upon, or obscured by crowding, human activities, or developments.

## **6.5 Goals and Objectives for Appropriate Tourism in Parks**

Thus far, it has been argued that national parks are places where environmental protection and preservation is of primary importance. They are places where visitors, respecting that importance, come to enjoy, learn about, and understand the values of the park. Parks have been shown to exist within a cultural and political context, providing benefits and incurring costs to the communities that declare and sustain them. It has been argued that all tourism in national parks should be ecologically and recreationally sustainable. Tourism in parks should be based on the values of the park and educate people about those values. It was also argued that there is a variety of tourism opportunities and experiences, compatible with the status of national park, which could be provided. At the same time, there is a range of tourism opportunities and experiences that should never be provided in a national park. This may be because they are incompatible with park values or with other tourism use that is appropriate in the park. Alternative locations outside national parks must be sought for such tourism development and activity.

Consequently, it is argued that appropriate tourism in national parks should:

- provide enjoyable recreational opportunities and personal experiences based on the features and values of the park;
- enliven, inform, and educate - fostering appreciation and understanding of a park's features and values;
- respect the viability, diversity, and values of natural features and processes;
- minimise impact on the park environment - applying environmentally sustainable operating practices, using environmentally benign goods and technology, and teaching the principles underlying these to visitors;
- respect cultural features and values - applying culturally compatible behaviour and operating practices, and teaching these to visitors;
- sustain the viability and diversity of the environmental and recreational character of the park in perpetuity;
- avoid impact on the legitimate enjoyment and experience of the park's features and values by others;
- benefit the local and wider community - ensuring economic benefits flow on to the community;
- support research, preservation and management of park features and values; and
- accord with management arrangements, being sustainably achievable within the realistic capacity of management resources, and conforming with the intent and provisions of the applicable Conventions (World Heritage for example), legislation, and management plans.

Therefore, the following goals for appropriate tourism in national parks are proposed.

- Provide a variety of opportunities for tourism, based on park values.
- Give enjoyment to visitors.

- Protect and maintain the environmental (and cultural) and recreational values of parks in perpetuity.
- Develop understanding of and support for national park values.
- Benefit communities locally, regionally, and statewide.

The following objectives are derived from the goals.

- (a) Provide opportunities for activities, relaxation, contemplation, enjoyment and educational experiences through direct contact or participatory involvement with the natural and cultural values of the park.
- (b) Encourage understanding of and support for national parks by highlighting and presenting the natural and cultural values of the park.
- (c) Identify and safeguard the environmental and recreational character of the park.
- (d) Practice and teach sound, sustainable, environmental and cultural behaviour.
- (e) Contribute directly to meeting the costs of researching, protecting, preserving, and managing the park.
- (f) Provide economic benefit to the community.
- (g) Promote tourism which meets the above objectives.

To achieve these objectives, the following strategies should be implemented.

1. Determine criteria for assessing appropriate tourism in national parks.
2. Develop guidelines for the content and presentation of the educational and interpretive component of tourism in parks.
3. Determine requirements and codes for sustainable environmental and cultural practices and behaviour (for example, Minimal Impact Bushwalking code).
4. Devise standards and guidelines for achieving the SEARCH goals for a park (models such as LAC and ROS may apply).
5. Determine requirements for community economic benefit to be provided by tourism.

6. Prepare options and programs for tourism contributions to research, conservation and management of the park.
7. Determine visitor needs, expectations and preferences.
8. Establish the general range of tourism opportunities for each national park, derived from the park's features and values and the tourism values they offer.
9. Prepare a tourism strategy/prospectus for each national park to promote appropriate tourism development in the park.

The thesis focuses on Strategy 1, which is developed in Chapter 7. Some discussion of Strategy 8 follows in this chapter, and is further developed in the case study of Maria Island National Park. Elements of Strategies 2 to 7 contribute to the assessment criteria for identifying appropriate tourism proposed for Strategy 1. They provide some of the essential requirements to be met by a tourism proposal. They are only briefly dealt with in the thesis as components of the Strategy 1 criteria. Strategy 9 draws upon the other strategies to promote and market appropriate tourism development in a park, according to the requirements of the other strategies. The tourism strategy, or prospectus, should be written in a form suitable for a prospective developer or operator looking for tourism opportunities in a national park. It should present, in a positive and pro-active way, an outline of tourism opportunities that are likely to be appropriate for the national park. It also will give guidance on what is expected of a proposal to meet the criteria for appropriate tourism in Strategy 1.

## **6.6 Framework Strategy 8 - Identifying Tourism Opportunities**

Identifying tourism opportunities in national parks, and then developing them, involves a number of steps. First, the tourism values of the park must be derived from a park's features and values and the potential visitor experiences they provide. Using the categories of values for national parks identified in Chapter 2 (refer to Figure 2, page 34), a series of tourism values can be identified. These tourism values, generic to all national parks, are:

- aesthetic appreciation of the scenic qualities of the park;

- cultural appreciation of the park's human history and artefacts (where the park contains such features);
- inspiration from the park's features and values;
- education about and appreciation and understanding of the park's features and values; and
- recreation in and based on the park's environment.

The second step is to realise the tourism values as tourism opportunities. Traditionally, tourism opportunities have been associated with infrastructure provision. In the nature based tourism sector, adventure tourism has focussed on experience through activity. Ecotourism focuses on both activity and direct experience through education and immersion in the park setting. To avoid a concentration on infrastructure at the expense of content, tourism opportunities should be viewed primarily as opportunities for experience. Identifying tourism opportunities in this way avoids putting the infrastructure "cart" before the experience "horse". Subsequently, tourism development of the opportunities may require providing necessary infrastructure to support the identified experiences.

An important goal for tourism in national parks is active encouragement of those experiences that increase understanding of and support for park values. This can be done by providing for direct but unstructured contact with the park, by encouraging activities that inherently bring tourists into direct contact with the park, or by providing infrastructure that supports and encourages tourist contact with, or activities in, the park. The primary focus should be on direct experience of the park's features and values, secondly on activities that immerse the tourist in the park setting and bring them into direct contact with park values, and lastly on infrastructure to support visitors in pursuing the preceding two.

Some tourism opportunities will rely on identifying scenic locations and natural and cultural features of a park and giving tourists access to them. The tourist then does the rest. A further series of opportunities rely on providing educational and interpretative materials, guides or teachers, and participatory programs to develop the tourist's appreciation and understanding of a park's features and values.

Another series of opportunities can include identification and sometimes provision of activities that tourists can undertake. Through the activities, they may experience a park's values. The final series of opportunities rely upon the provision of services and infrastructure, either to directly support the previously identified opportunities, or simply to support the tourist's presence in the park.

Whatever the tourism opportunity, it cannot guarantee a particular experience. The opportunities are merely the vehicles for experience, which is personal. Yet the type of experiences which people may have can generally be identified. Consequently, while visitors may have any number of a range of experiences, certain types of experiences should actively be provided for and promoted. In the case of a national park, the goals and objectives for tourism in the park are based upon the values of the park, and promote those values. Experience of the park's features and values should be encouraged. A tourist's experiences may not lead to understanding and support of them, but focussing on the content of the tourism opportunity greatly increases the chances. Park tourism opportunities should unashamedly focus on education and interpretation, adopting innovative and sensitive combinations of immersion, activity and infrastructure to enliven the tourist's experiences of park values.

Inappropriate tourism opportunities that compromise a park's values should not be permitted. Experiences relying on intrusive or damaging behaviour, activities, facilities or services should be discouraged. In between the inappropriate experiences and those which will be actively encouraged, are many experiences that remain personal, have no impact on park values, and are outside the ambit of management consideration. Experiences (socialising, introspection and so on), and activities (eating, sleeping, reading and so on) unrelated directly to park values are acceptable, but their management implications should be taken into account. For example, noisy social group activities need to be contained in areas where other values will not be compromised. Similarly, infrastructure (accommodation, toilets, parking and so on) which is incidentally related to national park values, but which in no way diminishes them, requires careful management consideration. Such infrastructure development should only occur as a necessary



consequence of appropriate tourism based on park values, and as a "by product" of it. Figure 6 sets out the relationships.

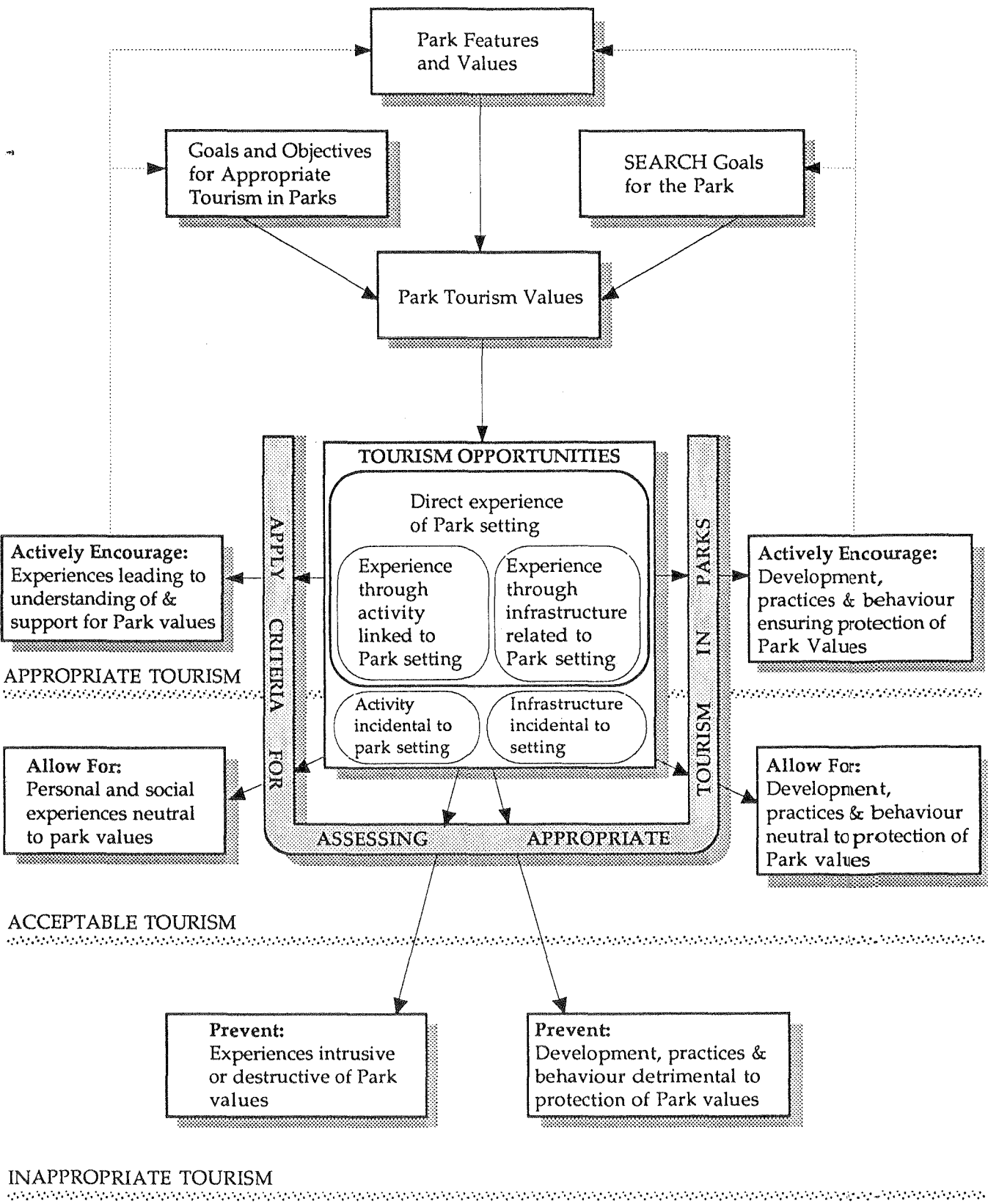
The third step is to develop and implement the tourism opportunities. They need to be developed into programs, activities, services, and facilities by which visitors can realise the tourism values of the park. The tourist may be a virtually self-sufficient, independent traveller, needing little in the way of supporting services or facilities. The tourist, although an independent traveller, may require some supporting services and facilities. Alternatively, a tourist visit may be fully arranged, supported by a program of information, activities, services, and facilities. Once a tourism proposal is formulated, it must be assessed for its appropriateness in a national park. Chapter 7 proposes the criteria to be used for such an assessment.

An appropriate tourism development may consist of the following:

1. An educational component.
2. An activity component.
3. Supporting infrastructure and services.

In national parks, it should always include 1. It should never consist solely of 3. Not all the elements of the development need to be provided by the same source. Some may be provided by the park management agency, others by private operators. However, all the elements should be linked in a clearly identified way into a package of tourism experiences that can be marketed to visitors. The opportunities need to be developed into actual proposals and evaluated against the criteria for appropriate tourism. From a commercial point of view, some have more direct economic promise than others. All will generate some economic activity, through purchase of provisions and equipment, travel to a park, and payment of entry and accommodation fees. If tourism opportunities are to be developed by the private sector they will need to be evaluated for their profitability. A market analysis should be undertaken. If public funds are sought to establish or support commercially developed opportunities (as often happens), the level of public subsidy that is warranted, if any, should be determined. Some tourism opportunities may be provided as a public

Figure 6      Identifying and Assessing Tourism Opportunities in National Parks (See Figure 5 for entire assessment framework)



good. The criteria for assessing appropriate tourism should not be manipulated to make an economically doubtful proposal become commercially feasible. Neither should there be manipulation to allow an environmentally or culturally doubtful proposal (whether by the private sector or by the park management agency) go ahead.

## Chapter 7 - Criteria for Assessing Tourism Proposals (Strategy 1)

### 7.1 Introduction

The guiding principles for appropriate tourism in national parks have been proposed in the previous pages. In summary, tourism in a national park must be in keeping with:

- the (proposed) legislative definition of national parks;
- the specific purposes for which the national park was declared;
- the SEARCH goals for the national park;
- the management objectives for the national park, as developed and elaborated in management and other plans; and
- the goals and objectives for appropriate tourism in national parks.

The main strategy proposed to meet the goals and objectives for tourism is to develop assessment criteria. This is Strategy 1 in the framework (refer to Figure 5). The criteria can be grouped into categories derived from the relationship of the tourism proposal to:

- information and education on park values;
- sustainability of natural values;
- environmental practices and technology;
- cultural practices and behaviour;
- compatibility with park character;
- compatibility with other uses and users;
- economic benefits to the community;
- conservation contribution;
- the management framework; and
- tourism opportunities and experiences based on park values.

The categories of criteria are not mutually exclusive. The criteria relate to tourism in national parks generally, and form a generic checklist. The criteria need to be made specific, using details particular to a proposal and a park, when they are applied. Some may prove irrelevant to a particular proposal. The specific features and values of a

park place a priority on the criteria. Furthermore, the criteria deal with matters that are not necessarily of the same order of value. That a certain ranking will arise in applying the criteria is inevitable. Firstly, certain values and priorities for the park should have already been established. These will determine the significance and order of priority of the criteria. Secondly, the particular details of a tourism proposal may suggest a ranking. The criteria that deal with maintenance of the natural and cultural values of the park should always rank more highly than those which deal with providing tourism or economic benefits. However, the intention is not to allocate points and score the assessment, but to highlight the issues that must be addressed in determining the appropriateness of a tourism proposal. If this assessment is made public, the emphasis adopted is available for all to scrutinise, without ascribing a pseudo-scientific score to justify what are essentially political decisions about values. While scoring techniques usually include a disclaimer about value judgements and weighting assumptions, the scores almost inevitably take on a life of their own, carrying a sense of objectivity that is unwarranted. The criteria, set out in categories, are proposed below.

## **7.2 Information and Education on Park Values**

These criteria relate to Strategy 2 for achieving the tourism goals and objectives. The emphasis of appropriate tourism in national parks is on experiencing and understanding park values, that is, an emphasis on content. The information and education content is an important element of appropriate tourism. It can be enlivened with interactive participatory activities. A program or prospectus for the educational and interpretive content of appropriate tourism, based on the values of the park, should be developed. Initially, such a program should be the task of the park management agency, although a tourism operator may wish to elaborate upon it. The details of such a program are not covered by this thesis. However, generally a tourism proposal should:

- demonstrate that it increases knowledge and understanding of park values;
- detail the information it will present about the values of the park;

- detail the proposed education program and medium of presentation of park values; and
- set out details of the proposed staff education and training in park values and presentation techniques.

### 7.3 Sustainability of Natural Values

These criteria relate to Strategy 3 for achieving the tourism goals and objectives. To protect and preserve the values that make national parks worthwhile places to visit, proposed uses should be assessed for their environmental impacts. These impacts will sometimes need to be determined by detailed assessment of a specific proposal. To varying degrees, the park management agency may already have data necessary for an assessment. Otherwise, the tourism proponent may be required to fund its collection and analysis. Generally, a tourism proposal should:

- identify and detail the impacts the proposal will have on
  - flora
  - fauna
  - ecosystems
  - bio-diversity
  - soils and geology
  - water quality
  - air quality
  - noise levels
  - disease and weed prevention and control
  - fire prevention and control;
- describe any ameliorative or preventative mechanisms proposed; and
- provide evidence that the proposal is ecologically sustainable in perpetuity.

### 7.4 Environmental Practices and Technology

These criteria relate to Strategy 3 for achieving the tourism goals and objectives. Tourism service providers must adopt a minimal impact approach in the tours and activities they offer. Tourism infrastructure

providers should manage sewage, waste, emissions, ecological disturbance, visual impact, and consumption of resources such as fuel, water and other materials to ensure environmental sustainability. Park management agencies should develop standards and guidelines for sustainable practices, or draw upon expertise elsewhere. The aim should be best practice given current circumstances. If this still means unacceptable impacts, then the proposal should not go ahead. A tourism proposal should:

- describe how the impacts of tours and activities will be minimised;
- detail water use requirements, source of supply, method of distribution, and water purity and conservation measures;
- detail energy requirements, fuel types and source, delivery, handling and storage techniques, emission and spill controls, energy saving programs and technology;
- detail sewerage volumes, handling and treatment methods, pollution minimisation techniques and technology;
- describe waste minimisation, waste management, and recycling programs;
- specify methods for minimisation of environmental disturbance, control of site works, rehabilitation and restoration; and
- provide evidence that the environmental practices and technology are ecologically sustainable in perpetuity.

## **7.5 Sustainability of Cultural Values**

These criteria relate to Strategy 3 for achieving the tourism goals and objectives. A national park may contain valuable cultural artefacts or structures, be the site of places of cultural, religious or social significance, or indeed continue to be inhabited by people. The proposed use of the park may take advantage of these cultural values or incidentally impinge upon them. The impacts of the use on these values need to be assessed. The first step is for the park management agency to identify cultural heritage within a park, and where necessary, prepare heritage conservation plans. A tourism proposal should:

- identify and detail any impacts upon cultural sites or features
  - physically
  - socially
  - culturally
  - spiritually;
- describe how the interests of the holders of any cultural values attached to the locality of the proposed use have been addressed;
- describe how it is proposed to use or visit cultural sites or features; and
- provide evidence that the sustainability of cultural values is not compromised by the proposal.

## 7.6 Compatibility with Park Character

These criteria relate to Strategy 4 for achieving the tourism goals and objectives. The SEARCH goals for each park set the initial framework for setting standards and requirements for maintaining the sustainable environmental and recreational character of a park. Management and other plans prepared by the park management agency will turn these into objectives, prescriptions, and indicators for monitoring and evaluating success in achieving the goals.

Development must respect and fit with the environmental and recreational characteristics of the area that have been identified as valuable. It should not imitate development from elsewhere, but rather complement the local sense of place (PATA, 1992). Additionally, the character style for development should be defined in terms of the intended visitor experience and act as a baseline to be maintained for all future design and site planning for tourism development in that area (Queensland National Parks and Wildlife Service, 1991). However, 'design tokenism and cliches are not examples of authenticity' (PATA, 1992: 21). Nor is creating "Jurassic Park" or its contrived theme park equivalent compatible with the intention of a national park. Whatever their value, theme park approaches do not fit the criteria of authenticity necessary for tourism development in national parks.



To some extent the effect of a tourism proposal on the character of the park will be determined by an assessment on its effects on a park's natural and cultural values, dealt with previously. The compatibility of the proposal with other users and uses is also very important in addressing the question of park character. This aspect is dealt with in 7.7. The assessment of compatibility with park character should not just be site specific but also include a holistic perspective. The impact of a proposed use will depend upon the type of use and whether the provision of new infrastructure is required. Frequently, visual disturbance affects park character and the aesthetic impact of physical development needs to be determined. Furthermore, the historic layers of a place contribute to its character. A tourism proposal may mean irreversible change to the park. There may be no substitute elsewhere for aspects of the park's character that will be changed by the tourism proposal. Standards and guidelines for development works should be prepared by the park management agency to cover most of these eventualities. At times, the impacts on park character may be uncertain. Therefore, a tourism proposal should:

- identify the ways the use will impact upon
  - viewfields and aesthetic qualities
  - noise levels
  - scale, form and silhouette of existing built and natural features;
- identify past (discontinued) and current uses of the area and indicate in what ways the proposed use is similar or dissimilar to them
  - in activity
  - in location
  - in scale of facilities and infrastructure
  - in numbers, frequency and duration of use
  - in facilities design, finishes;
- demonstrate the degree of reversibility of the proposal;
- identify existing, equivalent substitutes, within the park, for any park character to be lost;
- acknowledge and identify any uncertainty about the effects of the proposal; and

- describe the effects on the SEARCH goals for the park if past uses are recommenced, current uses are continued, or new uses are commenced.

## 7.7 Compatibility with Other Uses and Users

These criteria relate to Strategy 4 and 7 for achieving the tourism goals and objectives. Community expectations and opinions about national parks are diverse and not easily tapped, but should be taken into account. A proposed tourism development may have impacts on people's perceptions and experiences of the park. The difficulty is in determining these impacts. Some general attitudes can be predicted from experience and the park management agency should undertake regular visitor surveys. Sometimes, consultation processes specific to a proposal should be undertaken, particularly if a project involving infrastructure is proposed. In many cases, there will be existing tourism or other uses of the national park already in place. The compatibility of existing and proposed uses and users needs to be determined. The proposed use may harmonise or conflict with existing uses or users. If the latter, the most appropriate use needs to be determined or uses located so they do not interfere with each other. A proposal may have an impact upon not only other users but also other tourism operations. Some of the more obvious criteria which highlight how people experience and value an area are proposed below. A tourism proposal should:

- indicate any constraints on or opportunities for public use;
- identify aspects of the proposed use which are likely to receive support and why;
- identify aspects of the proposed use which are likely to be opposed and why.
- describe any changes the use will make to
  - existing crowding levels
  - privacy levels
  - visitor dispersal patterns;
- describe how the proposal will impinge upon other users
  - visually
  - aurally

- spatially
- experientially
- by involuntary inclusion
- by involuntary exclusion
- by facility intrusion;
- identify any similar tourism opportunity available already in the park;
- identify any similar tourism opportunity available already within (say) 100 kilometres of the park; and
- canvas the options to relocate an existing or the proposed use to another location (either within or outside the national park).

## 7.8 Economic Benefits to the Community

These criteria relate to Strategy 5 for achieving the tourism goals and objectives. Communities have economic needs and expectations of national parks. The two most significant aspects of this economic interest are the amount of money generated for the local community and the number of jobs created. Calculating this is not always straightforward. Experience shows that many tourist developments provide only limited local benefit, with substantial repatriation of economic benefits interstate or overseas. A program identifying contributions to community benefit should be prepared by consultants engaged by the park management agency. This could vary from contracts to buy certain materials and other supplies locally, to employment and training schemes to involve local people in the running of the venture. The following suggestions are given only as examples. A tourism proposal should:

- list and give supporting evidence for the number, duration and type of jobs the proposal will directly and indirectly create for people living
  - within (say) 100 kilometres of the Park
  - within Tasmania; and
- list and give supporting evidence for the value of goods, materials, and services which the proposal will rely on either produced, or sourced (but not produced)
  - within (say) 100 kilometres of the Park

- within Tasmania.

## 7.9 Conservation Contribution

These criteria relate to Strategy 6 for achieving the tourism goals and objectives. The program for contribution to the protection and contribution of the park and its values needs to be worked out in detail for each park. It should be the responsibility of the park management agency to do this. Contributions could be in cash or in kind. Contributions may be directed to information and interpretation programs, to scientific research programs, to provision of visitor facilities and so on. A tourism proposal should:

- contribute to the maintenance and upkeep of the Park, especially that resulting from the proposal;
- demonstrate that the use will contribute to ongoing conservation research in the Park; and
- contribute to provision of visitor services and facilities.

## 7.10 The Management Framework

These criteria relate to Strategies 4, 5, and 6 for achieving the tourism goals and objectives. According to the proposed framework, legislation should set a definition of a national park. A statement of purpose, and SEARCH goals for each park, are also proposed. Statutory management plans which should be produced for each park contain more detailed prescriptions for use. Sometimes, site specific plans for local areas within a national park are also prepared. However, a management plan cannot anticipate all the possible tourism proposals that may arise. Furthermore, there are always some national parks for which no plan has yet been prepared or for which the existing plan is out of date. However, as far as possible, the park management agency should develop and regularly review the necessary plans. A tourism proposal should:

- demonstrate that it conforms to all relevant Acts, Conventions and Regulations;
- demonstrate that it conforms to the definition of a national park;

- demonstrate that it conforms to the statement of purpose for the park;
- demonstrate that it conforms to the SEARCH goals for the park;
- demonstrate that it conforms to the objectives and prescriptions of the Management Plan (if any);
- demonstrate that it conforms to the objectives and prescriptions of the Site Plan or Development Plan (if any); and
- demonstrate that it conforms to the Burra Charter where cultural sites and landscapes are involved.

Park managers have detailed day to day knowledge of the requirements and associated costs of dealing with visitors. Their budgets are limited, they are subject to public and political scrutiny, and they have to maintain the parks to the satisfaction of people often holding widely divergent views about national parks. Not only must any drain on public resources be avoided but also a proposal should be economically viable, taking into account the full cost of externalities. A tourism proposal should:

- set out in detail and demonstrate its economic viability in a business plan and budget plan;
- describe the extent to which it will rely on publicly provided park funding and assets;
- detail the type and extent of demands (frequency, duration, volumes and costs) the proposal will place on public and management facilities such as
  - parking
  - public facilities
  - sewerage treatment
  - water supply
  - power supply;
- detail the type and extent of demands the use will place on management services such as
  - supervision and monitoring
  - information and advice
  - interpretation
  - policing.

## 7.11 Tourism Opportunities and Experiences Based on Park Values

These criteria relate to Strategy 8 and 9 for achieving the tourism goals and objectives. Tourism in national parks should principally be based directly on the values of the park, not merely use them as an incidental backdrop or only make passing acknowledgement of them. The values are identified in the Act by the (proposed) definition of a national park, and in the statement of purpose and SEARCH goals for each park. The park management agency should draw upon tourism expertise in government and industry to assist development of a tourism strategy or prospectus for each park. The opportunities will vary between parks, but should be derived in accordance with the proposed framework. While it is unlikely to be based on all park values, a tourism proposal should:

- demonstrate that it is based upon indigenous biotic communities and species, biological diversity, physiographic features, and natural processes;
- demonstrate that it is based upon cultural features, historic areas, structures and artefacts (where they occur);
- demonstrate that it is based upon characteristics of places, however large or small, which contribute to the natural or cultural integrity of the area; and
- describe the opportunities the proposal provides for visitors to enjoy, learn about and appreciate the features and values of the park through scientific, educational, spiritual, or recreational means.

## Chapter 8 - Applying the Framework, Maria Island National Park Case Study

### 8.1 Introduction

Maria Island National Park has been selected as a case study to test parts of the proposed tourism assessment framework. It is not within the scope of this thesis to undertake the complete development and testing of the framework since public discussion and consultation are integral to the proper implementation of it. Such consultation could not be undertaken with the time and resources available for the preparation of the thesis. Development of some elements of the framework, such as many of the strategies for achieving the goals and objectives for tourism, are major tasks, requiring a variety of expertise. Even when all the elements of the framework are in place, experience in applying it will highlight any necessary refinements and modifications.

### 8.2 Maria Island National Park

#### 8.2.1 Brief Description

Maria Island lies off the south-east coast of Tasmania (see Figure 7). The Park covers an area of 9672 ha and includes the entire island to low water mark. It also includes a marine extension on the north-west side of the island (see Figure 8). Access to the park is by boat or plane. The only jetty serving the island is at Darlington. There is a landing strip for light aircraft at Cape Boullanger near Darlington. The nearest departure points for the island are from Louisville (12 km), Triabunna (16 km) and Orford (16 km). At present, commercial ferry services operate from both Triabunna and Louisville taking between 25 minutes and an hour to reach the island, depending on the vessel and the seas.

Maria Island has a distinctive profile that is clearly visible from the adjacent mainland of Tasmania. The island consists of virtually two islands, joined by a low, narrow isthmus. The Maria Range forms the spine of the northern island, extending from Bishop and Clerk (630 m) in the north, south to Mt Maria (709 m) and ending at Perpendicular

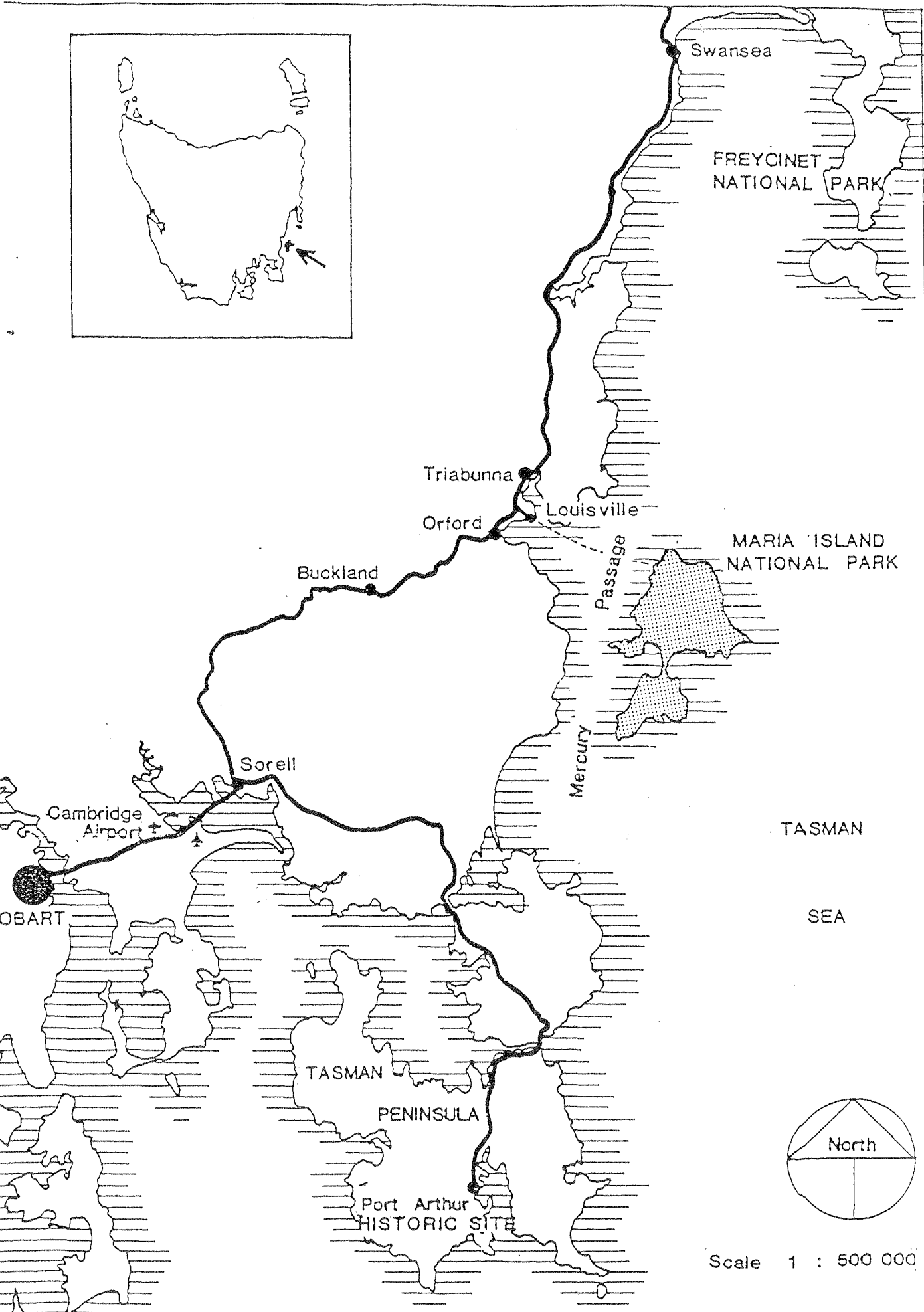


Figure 7 Location - Maria Island National Park



Mountain (340 m). The eastern coastline consists of an indented line of granite headlands and cliff lines. Along the north coast, cliffs rise to 300 m at Fossil Bay. The western coastline includes dune-barred lagoons behind a series of sandy beaches, interspersed with dolerite and sandstone points.

A detailed account of the natural and cultural features of Maria Island National Park is contained in the draft management plan for the park (National Parks and Wildlife Service, 1986). Appendix 1 provides a summary of this account. From the point of view of this thesis, the most pertinent data contained in the draft management plan are the values identified for the park. When the draft plan was released for public review, no adverse comment was received on the values identified. Although the draft plan is now some eight years old, continued community acceptance of the identified park values has been assumed. A contemporary testing of this acceptance would be preferable but is beyond the scope of the thesis. The values, drawn from the draft plan and quoted practically verbatim, are set out below.

### 8.2.2 Natural and Scientific Values

Maria Island's native vegetation consists of a great diversity of predominantly dry sclerophyll plant communities of high conservation value. This is due to the presence of geographically significant endemic species, rare or vulnerable species, and several plant communities that are unreserved or poorly reserved elsewhere in the State Reserve system. In addition, the apparent absence of the destructive root fungus *Phytophthora cinnamomi* greatly enhances the value of the island for flora conservation.

The Park is particularly valuable for wildlife conservation due to the presence of one of the largest known populations of forty-spotted pardalotes. The distribution of this endemic bird species is virtually restricted to the drier forests of south-east Tasmania. Diverse vegetation also provides a range of habitats for both native vertebrate and invertebrate populations. Cleared areas, mainly in the northern part of the island, support introduced populations of the previously threatened forester kangaroo and Cape Barren goose. The island

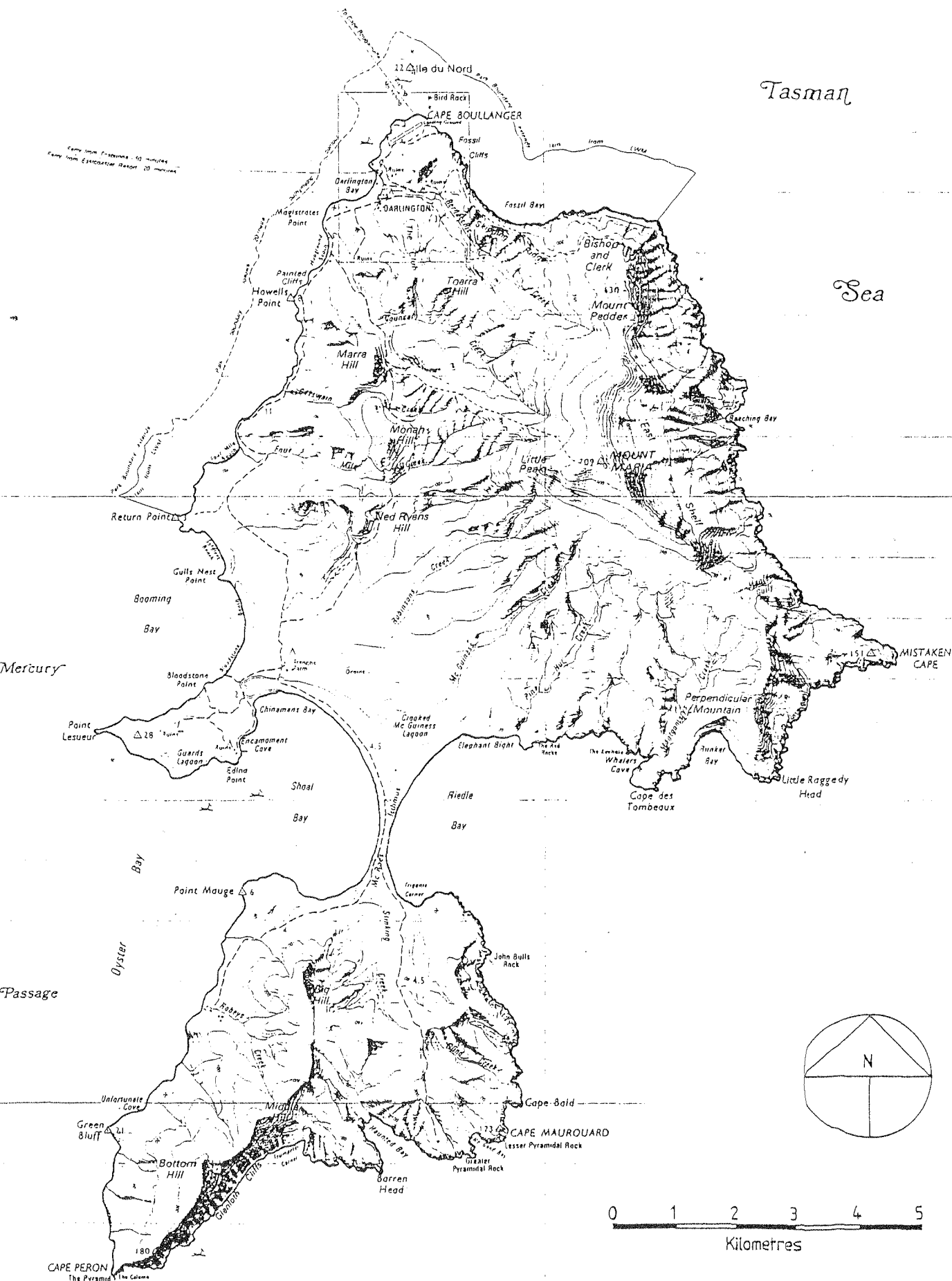


Figure 8 Maria Island National Park

Source: Department of Environment and Planning, Tasmania, 1993

remains an important refuge for these animals and serves as a useful laboratory for scientific research into their population biology.

The geology of Maria Island is of great scientific interest as it contains features from many geological ages. In particular, the aptly named Fossil Cliffs, are perhaps the finest example of their kind anywhere in the world. Other geological features include the Triassic sandstones of the Painted Cliffs and the spectacular dolerite columns of Bishop and Clerk. As Maria Island's geological features are so varied and yet relatively accessible, they provide an excellent opportunity for education and interpretation.

### 8.2.3 Cultural Values

Past use of the island by Aborigines and Europeans has left a series of buildings, ruins, relics, exotic landscapes and records that form a valuable cultural resource and provide rich source material for educative and interpretive programmes. Vivid accounts of meetings with Aborigines written by French explorers give a good idea of the way of life of the island band. The remains from periods of European activity, beginning early in the 19th Century, include whaling, convict settlement, agriculture, cement industry and grazing. They are concentrated around Darlington and Point Lesueur, making these areas of special cultural importance.

The convict settlements were part of the Australian penal system that was the basis of European development of Australia and of Tasmania in particular. The remains of the convict periods represent two different treatments of minor convict offenders. Remnants from the first period are significant because they pre-date the Port Arthur settlement and point to early industrial activity undertaken by convicts sentenced to a secondary period of punishment after arrival in Australia. Remains from the second period form one of the most complete and unaltered convict probation stations of over 30 such stations built in Tasmania to receive minor first offenders.

The Bernacchi development (refer to Appendix 1 for more detail), which followed the convict periods, typifies the optimism of the period

and is of some local distinction, reflecting the experimentation and enterprise of the growing European civilian population. The cement works and kilns are good, relatively complete examples of the technology of the day. They represent a continuum of developing technology and industrial practice culminating in the industrial complex - a major Australian enterprise of its time. The remains of the National Portland Cement Company form an important industrial site although the remains are not of great significance in themselves. The maintenance and re-use of buildings in Darlington has incidentally resulted in the retention of meaningful elements from each period. The result is a complex historic site unimpaired by later modern development and capable of accurate interpretation. The Darlington site thus has significance as a protected and accessible point for visitors to appreciate local and national history.

#### **8.2.4 Tourist and Recreational Values**

The Park has considerable recreational appeal for visitors because of a number of factors, not least of which is that it is an island, removed yet visible from mainland Tasmania. It affords the opportunity for a short sea voyage to a peaceful non-commercial destination free from the noise and congestion of vehicular traffic. The island has a variety of scenic landscape features including mountains, cliffs, gentle slopes and beaches that provide a stimulating holiday setting.

In Darlington the presence of historic buildings set amidst a pastoral landscape with European trees allows visitors to take a convincing step back into the past. Because the only ferry services are to Darlington, all but the western margin of the Park is comparatively undeveloped. This situation ensures a range of recreational opportunities for visitors that, together with a mild reliable climate, makes the Park a valuable tourist and recreational asset. The non-commercial nature of the Park gives it a special character that is difficult to find elsewhere on the east coast of Tasmania and which is recognised and appreciated by visitors.

The experience in Darlington is that of a relatively undisturbed historic settlement although it has the most facilities and evidence of on-site management. Away from Darlington, the west coast grassland area has

a low level of facilities but some evidence of management, while in the remaining areas these are almost totally lacking. This disposition of services and facilities means that visitors have the greatest possible choice of types of experience consistent with the values of the Park. These range from that of a low key holiday resort in Darlington to less crowded bush camping in the Chinamans Bay area. The vicinity of Darlington provides many recreational opportunities of a short - medium duration and easy - moderate difficulty that are suitable for families and less active people. From Chinamans Bay there are many opportunities for more active people to explore remote and isolated parts of the island.

#### **8.2.5 Educational Values**

Within a small area, the island provides ample opportunity to observe and learn about the natural and cultural environment in pleasant and stimulating surroundings. The combination of diverse vegetation, spectacular geology, accessible wildlife, a rich history and archaeology is not readily found in any other location. These aspects, coupled with the island setting removed from most modern conveniences, and a relatively benign climate, create a unique learning environment. Being an island, it is a location where groups of young people can practise some degree of self-sufficiency in relative safety. Consequently, it has become an important educational resource for a wide variety of school and community groups.

### **8.3 Statement of Purpose - Maria Island National Park**

Appendix 1 summarises the features of Maria Island National Park and the values derived from them are set out above. The framework for assessing appropriate tourism identifies a number of steps in the process. The first is that the definition of national parks be made clear. This has been proposed in Chapter 6. The next step is to identify the more specific purposes of each national park. Using the features and values identified in the draft management plan, the following statement of purpose for Maria Island National Park is proposed. As argued previously, such a statement should preferably be identified

when a park is first reserved, but in this case it needs to be done retrospectively.

Maria Island National Park is declared a national park, as defined in the Act (that is, using a definition inserted in the Act such as proposed earlier in the thesis), for the following purposes:

**Principal Purposes:**

- Protect and preserve geographically significant endemic, rare or vulnerable plant and animal species indigenous to the Island, particularly the largest known population of the endemic bird species, the forty spotted pardalote, and several plant communities and animal habitats which are unreserved or poorly reserved elsewhere in the State Reserve system.
- Protect and retain the elements of the culturally significant past use of the island, and the layering of evidence documenting the major periods of 'Aboriginal use, exploration, convict settlement, industrial development, pastoral pursuits and dedication as a national park' (Godden Mackay, 1992).

**Secondary Purposes:**

- Conserve wildlife populations.
- Conserve physiographic features of the island, particularly the Fossil Cliffs, the Painted Cliffs, and the spectacular dolerite columns of Bishop and Clerk.
- Conserve the recreational and educational appeal of the park as an island removed from and different to the everyday world, as a scenic landscape, as a step into the historic past, as a natural environment with opportunities to experience, in close proximity, flora, fauna, and natural features of distinctive and significant environmental value.

## **8.4 Sustainable Environmental and Recreational Character Goals - Maria Island National Park**

### **8.4.1 Introduction**

The third step in assessing appropriate tourism in the park is to make explicit the goals for its long term future. The framework proposes that SEARCH goals be identified. The values of Maria Island National Park have been recognised as significant by the community. Protection and preservation of these values from inappropriate development and management should be sustained not just in the short term but for future generations. The park character consists of the natural and cultural environment and the recreational opportunities that this environment provides.

### **8.4.2 SEARCH Goals**

Sustainable environmental and recreational character (SEARCH) goals for Maria Island National Park are proposed below. The goals must be acceptable to the community and have strong community support. Because the SEARCH goals have not been tested for community acceptance, they should be viewed as preliminary proposals.

Defining character goals is not a straightforward process. Somewhat intangible and elusive qualities must be encapsulated in the goals. Furthermore, different places within the park will have their own special qualities. Here, the goals proposed are for the park as a whole. Goals should also be developed for any management zones proposed for the park in a management plan. Site plans could also identify localised character goals.

(a) **To sustain the environmental character of Maria Island National Park, the park should be characterised by:**

- **maximum indigenous biodiversity** - Most of the island has been undisturbed since the arrival of Europeans and its biodiversity is virtually intact. A goal for this national park is to maintain or restore, as completely as possible,

the variability of indigenous living organisms and the ecological complexes of which they are a part. This means that the knowledge and understanding of life forms within the park must be developed and great care taken to ensure no actions are taken which will diminish the biodiversity of the park.

- **viable populations of all indigenous species** - The special characteristics of island populations of indigenous species are largely retained on Maria Island. However, some introduced species are also present. Maintenance of indigenous species should always take precedence over populations of introduced species. The intention is to maintain populations of each indigenous species sufficient that they can freely live and breed in perpetuity. This goal requires that both the species populations and the habitats and environmental conditions on which they rely are maintained (or restored).
- **unfettered ecological processes** - As far as possible, ecological processes should be allowed to occur unfettered by human interference. However, the park is not isolated from the wider environment, and the influences of people. Introduced wildlife populations have altered ecological processes. Consequently some interference in the park's ecological processes may be necessary to manage the impacts of introduced species. Human safety and protection of cultural heritage will also require management action.
- **undisturbed physiographic features** - There are significant land forms and geological features that characterise the park. These should be protected and, where clearing, overgrazing, or other uses have created instability or erosion, rehabilitation should be undertaken.
- **unpolluted air, land and water** - The park is substantially free of pollution of air, land, and water. However, localised pollution of streams occurs in Darlington. Rubbish is found in some isolated areas accessible by boat, and around the existing rubbish tip. The goal should be to



improve upon the existing localised pollution problems and retain unpolluted areas in their existing state.

- **significant and authentic cultural landscapes, historic settlements, fabric, and artefacts** - Darlington, the most heavily visited area of the park, is characterised by 'a complex cultural landscape which retains elements from many distinct phases of its development and history' (Godden Mackay, 1992). Other areas of the park have a similar character. The cultural landscapes, historic fabric such as Aboriginal middens, European buildings, and historic artefacts, should be fully documented and their significance identified. This should be done according to the principles of the Burra Charter, and in the case of Aboriginal heritage, in consultation with the Aboriginal community. Where they have been identified as significant, the existing cultural landscapes and historic settlements created by past human activity should be retained and reinforced according to established principles. Where necessary, repair and restoration, including replanting, should be undertaken. To retain the authenticity and integrity of the cultural features of the park, no re-creations, conjectural reconstructions, imitations or simulations should be permitted. Restoration may include new uses for buildings provided the principles of the Burra Charter are observed. No new use (even when it previously occurred) should conflict with the SEARCH goals for the park.

(b) **To sustain the recreational character of Maria Island National Park, the park should be characterised by:**

- **quietness and solitude** - Emphasised by its island location, the park is characterised by quietness and an atmosphere of solitude. Visitors should find the predominant atmosphere of the park, wherever they are, is one of quietness, characterised by the general absence of noise from machinery, electronically amplified sounds, loud voices and the like. The predominant sounds should be

the sounds of nature such as wind and rain, the sea and creeks, wildlife, and vegetation. A visitor should be able to find many places to experience a sense of quietness and solitude where, even in the Darlington precinct, the atmosphere is one of undisturbed nature or of a cultural landscape devoid of modern development or intrusion. It means that key features and values of the park should not be damaged, visually intruded upon, or obscured by crowding, human activities, or new developments. Areas for active and noisy socialising should be carefully located to protect the characteristics of quietness and solitude. This goal applies throughout the park, including the designated visitor zones at the Darlington precinct, French's Farm, and Encampment Cove.

- **an uncrowded atmosphere** - Except in a few busy times in very localised areas such as the campgrounds, the boating enclave at Encampment Cove, or near the penitentiary, Maria Island is characterised by an uncrowded atmosphere. In other areas that provide visitor facilities and access, crowding is rarely a problem. The goal should be to ensure visitors can readily find places to experience the sense of quietness and solitude set as the previous goal. This goal may require the establishment of ceilings on the number of both overnight visitors and day visitors to the island. These ceilings may need to apply within visitor zones and collectively over the whole park;
- **ready contact by visitors with undisturbed flora, fauna and natural features and processes** - A wide diversity of flora and fauna, landforms and marine environments characterise Maria Island. All are readily apparent and accessible to visitors. The current level of ready opportunities for visitors to encounter untamed but relatively unafraid wildlife, spectacular natural features, unspoilt beaches, and a variety of vegetation communities at close quarters should be maintained.
- **undisturbed natural scenic landscapes** - Even when viewed from afar, the natural landscapes of the park are scenically striking. A closer view shows the scenic

qualities in more detail and highlights the environmental characteristics of land form, water, vegetation, and wildlife that combine to create them. The existing landscapes that show no evidence of clearing or disturbance for human settlement, agricultural, mining or forestry activity should be maintained undisturbed. Landscape rehabilitation should be undertaken in areas deteriorating through erosion, overgrazing or weed infestation. Significant cultural landscapes should be restored and maintained as cultural landscapes. In other areas, rehabilitation should aim to restore "natural" landscapes.

- **an authentic historic atmosphere and a sense of the layers of the past** - At Darlington in particular, the historic atmosphere is one of past human endeavour, aspirations, and suffering, now gone and silent. The silence, amidst the evidence of the past, highlights for the visitor the layers of history and the transitory nature of different periods of the island's human history. The existing historic integrity and atmosphere of the park should be maintained and presented in an authentic manner to show all the layers of history of the island. Cultural landscapes, historic character, and the existing atmosphere of the historic settlements should not be marred by the intrusion of new development or the re-establishment of lapsed uses or development.
- **a striking sense of contrast with the attributes of development and merchandising of the everyday world** - A pervasive and valuable atmosphere of the park, amplified by its island setting, is the sense of contrast with the pace and development of modern life. Because this contrast is now a significant element of the park's character, it should take precedence over development and merchandising proposals, including uses and activities that may have occurred in the past but which would now undermine this goal. A visitor should find the park substantially free of the everyday services and facilities to be found on the mainland. The park should remain free of any private or commercial motorised

vehicles. Except in emergencies, use of management vehicles should be limited to clearly defined duties and delineated routes. To achieve this goal means that developments such as shops, restaurants, kiosks, hotels, amusement facilities or rides, advertising, amplified sounds, and street lighting should not be provided.

- **a strong sense of separation and isolation from the mainland** - By its very nature as an island, separation and isolation characterise the park. The only access to the park should remain by sea or air. No vehicular-ferry crossing should be provided. The sense of isolation should be reinforced by retaining the contrast between the undeveloped island and the developed mainland. The need for provisioning by either air or sea links should be emphasised to heighten the sense of being on an island. Especially for day visitors, the experience should be one of arriving in comfort, yet for a brief period stepping safely not only back in time, but also away from the everyday artefacts of modern life. Behind them the jetty and the ferry will remain their metaphorical "umbilical cord" to the everyday pace and development of contemporary society on the mainland.

## 8.5 Tourism Values

The values of the park were outlined earlier. Although not all the park's values have direct tourism value, many do. The tourism values of Maria Island National Park are derived from the potential experiences which park "attractions", the park features and values, provide. Using the categories of park values identified in Chapter 2 (see Figure 2, page 34), the tourism values of the park are identified as:

- aesthetic appreciation of the scenic natural and cultural landscapes of the island;
- cultural appreciation of the Aboriginal and European history of the island;

- inspiration from the scenic landscapes, the sense of human history, the sense of isolation and separation from the technology, pace of life, sounds and sights of the everyday world;
- educational appreciation and understanding of the natural and cultural environment, especially the flora, fauna, physiographic features, marine features, rich history, and archaeological features; and
- recreation in a natural and cultural setting ranging from relaxing, passive experiences away from the manifestations and stresses of modern urban life to challenging, active, adventure experiences.

There is an overlap and an interplay between these different tourism values. A visitor's experiences will be a complex mix of them, and other personal and social values and experiences.

## 8.6 Tourism Opportunities

The tourism opportunities provide the mechanism for the experiences of park values to be realised. The variety of potential opportunities that can be derived from the tourism values of Maria Island National Park is limited only by the power of imagination. Identifying all the potential opportunities, checking them against the criteria for assessing appropriate tourism, and producing a definitive and exhaustive list of tourism opportunities for the park is simply not possible. Neither is it desirable, since it would preclude inventiveness, ignore changing recreational technology, and be overtaken by any changes in the values identified for a park. However, an indicative list can be generated which guides tourism development proposals towards those which are likely to be appropriate. In developing such a list, the SEARCH goals for the park and the goals and objectives for appropriate tourism must be kept in mind. This will simplify assessment of proposals and minimise wasting time and resources on inappropriate ones.

Appropriate tourism opportunities should be education based. To enliven direct experience and appreciation, they may include recreational activities. Some activity-based tourism opportunities are less directly based on the values of the park than others. For example

cycling or swimming can be done in many other places. Nevertheless they provide possibilities for the tourist to encounter park values.

There are no discrete boundaries between the categories of tourism values identified in 8.5. Consequently, the tourism opportunities derived from them may incorporate elements of a number of the park's tourism values. In Figure 9, tourism opportunities for Maria Island National Park are identified in a matrix that highlights some of the likely tourism values upon which they will be based. This is an indicative list, not intended to be comprehensive.

In most places, tourism development has generally focussed on providing transport and the supporting facilities, but much less so on the information and activities provided. All tourists to Maria Island National Park, unless they have access to a private boat or plane, need transport provided to the Island. This is a fundamental infrastructure requirement for tourism in the park. Once there, the opportunities can range from those for the independent tourist to guided, and even catered, tours. Day and overnight visitors need to be provided for.

Some of these opportunities rely on supporting services or infrastructure. In a national park, it is important not to confuse the infrastructure and support services with the tourism opportunity. Because of the special values of the park, identified in the SEARCH goals for the park, there should be a specific approach to providing support services and facilities on the island. For example, all visitors need to eat, but this does not mean that there should be food outlets in the park. All provisioning should be done from elsewhere, rather than from outlets in the park. Accommodation provides another example. Overnight visitors need to be accommodated in some fashion but accommodation is a support service to the real tourism opportunities on Maria Island, not a tourism attraction in isolation. The accommodation is incidental to the value of the park, not the other way around. This does not mean that accommodation cannot be attractive. It means that its attractiveness must be in the context of supporting visitor experiences of the values of Maria Island. Accommodation is best located to take advantage of existing services and facilities, all of which are located at Darlington. However, the

Figure 9      Tourism Opportunities on Maria Island

TOURISM OPPORTUNITY	TOURISM VALUE				
	Aesthetic Appreciation	Cultural Appreciation	Inspiration	Educational Appreciation	Recreation/ Relaxation
viewing scenic locations	•		•		•
contemplating park features & values	•	•	•	•	•
observing nature	•		•	•	•
observing historic artefacts and sites	•	•		•	•
learning about human history		•	•	•	•
learning about natural features	•		•	•	•
participating in conservation projects		•		•	•
relaxing in historic location	•	•	•		•
relaxing in quiet & scenic location	•		•		•
recreating in natural or historic location	•	•	•		•

integrity of the historic precinct should not be violated by new development. Either existing buildings should be used or accommodation sites identified on the fringes of the precinct but visually separate from it.

Once the potential tourism opportunities for the park are identified, the next step in the proposed framework is preparation of a park tourism strategy or prospectus. This strategy should develop ideas for tourism opportunities, by indicating programs, activities, or infrastructure already available or desired for the park. For example, a series of recreational activities such as bushwalking, cycling, diving climbing, and boating may be identified that have potential for private sector involvement through guided adventure tours. Opportunities to provide food to day and overnight visitors and supplies to campers could include providing gourmet picnic hampers or day packs with a packed lunch to day visitors in conjunction with the ferry or air services to the park. The ferry services could offer delivery of pre-ordered supplies to campers. Some ideas are suggested in Appendix 2. Further work needs to be done on identifying tourism opportunities and presenting these in a tourism strategy or prospectus. Opportunities based on physical features could be mapped. Services such as

information, interpretation and education programs based on park features and values should be identified. The type and amount of infrastructure (tracks, accommodation, toilets and the like), in keeping with the SEARCH goals, needs to be identified.

The tourism strategy, or prospectus, should also include information on the criteria for assessing specific tourism development proposals. The standards, guidelines and codes developed as part of the other strategies proposed in the framework should also be included, or referred to. A clear marketing strategy should be developed and included in the tourism strategy. Marketing should draw its themes from the SEARCH goals for the park. Tourism expertise from government agencies and the private sector should be involved with development of the strategy, in accordance with the proposed framework.



## Chapter 9 - Summary and Conclusion

This thesis set out to deal with the problem faced by park managers of reconciling environmental protection and tourism in national parks. The objective was to develop a legislative, policy, and implementation framework for assessing appropriate tourism in parks. The method involved an examination of the concept of national parks and of the tourism phenomenon. The issues involved in dealing with tourism in parks were identified and analysed to establish the need for the framework, and requirements for its content. The framework was developed and subsequently tested in two ways. First, preliminary examples of the principles, policies, and strategies that the framework requires for implementation were proposed. Second, the framework was applied to a case study of Maria Island National Park.

Investigation of the concept of national parks revealed that they are cultural icons which represent different things to different people. Their definition and purpose are unclear in legislation. Two paradoxical aims were identified which underpin the concept of national parks in law; one of environmental protection and one of tourism. Community assumptions and values about national parks, and the two aims, are diverse, and have changed considerably since parks were first established. The changes parallel others in the wider environmental, cultural, and political context in which parks exist. The conclusion is that it is time to reassess and restate the meaning and purpose of national parks. Otherwise, there is no clear basis on which to assess tourism in them.

The examination of park values revealed that environmental protection and preservation is widely held to be the principal aim of national parks, though this was not established empirically. However, for the purposes of the thesis, the proposition was adopted. Nevertheless, parks are not the only environmental priority and they cannot exist as isolated fortresses which provide a "freeze frame" of environmental purity and integrity. They are part of, and contiguous with the wider environment. Parks cannot be separated from the cultural and political landscape. They exist because communities

choose to have them, and community support is fundamentally important.

Support will come from understanding the issues and values inherent in the concept of national parks. People should be encouraged to understand the environment, its features and processes, and its importance to human survival. They should be made aware of the role national parks can play in retaining representativeness and diversity of environmental features and characteristics. First hand experience is a powerful way for people to encounter and begin to understand these issues and values. Visiting parks to personally experience them is one way that people can become allies of parks. Here the role of tourism is important.

Tourism has always been a major reason for reservation of national parks. Examination of the tourism phenomenon identified a number of potential threats that it can pose to environmental protection in parks. The tourism industry cannot be relied upon to ensure that the national park "resource" which they use will be sustainably protected. Neither can park managers ensure this if they operate in a policy vacuum with no clear assessment process. A clearly defined assessment framework for appropriate tourism is necessary.

Benefits of tourism were also identified. Possibilities exist for tourism to contribute to environmental protection and provide economic benefits to communities. Tourism provides an opportunity to inform visitors about park values and can have a significant, educative role. The major emphasis of tourism in parks could be orientated to experiencing and understanding park values. The framework, therefore, is intended to actively encourage tourism in parks that meets this role.

The strengths and weakness of current management responses to the issues arising from tourism in parks were reviewed. The "tyranny of small decisions" was identified as a major threat to sustaining park values, particularly the somewhat intangible, but nevertheless real, character of places which makes them special. Ad hoc, site and proposal specific responses to problems were identified. Current

management responses tend to focus on technical solutions or limited aspects of the issues that need to be dealt with. A framework that addresses the problems in a holistic context is necessary and should include a vision for the future of each park. This would be a first step in overcoming the danger of incremental destruction of a park's values, particularly its special character.

The key components of an assessment framework were identified and their relationship to each other shown diagrammatically. The framework first requires that a legislative definition of national parks be established. Secondly, a statement of purpose for each park is proposed. Thirdly, the framework requires development of SEARCH goals for each park. The fourth key component is development of goals and objectives for tourism in parks. As an assessment tool, the framework does not stand or fall on the values used in its application. However, it does require that value positions be identified and incorporated in it. Community and political support for the definition of a national park, the statement of purpose for each park and its SEARCH goals, and the goals and objectives for tourism in parks, is essential. Once established, this support should help protect assessments made using the framework against incremental erosion by vested interest groups. This is what the framework is meant to avoid.

With these four components of the framework in place, strategies to achieve the tourism goals were proposed. The permutations and combinations of tourism opportunities and experiences that could be developed cannot be foreseen. Management plans, when they are prepared, cannot be expected to cover every eventuality. Therefore, one of the key strategies proposed in the framework is to develop criteria for assessing tourism proposals. The criteria are intended to be sufficiently comprehensive to prevent piecemeal assessment that almost inevitably is to the detriment of sustaining park values. The framework is also intended to promote appropriate tourism. Therefore, another key strategy proposed in it is to identify potential tourism opportunities for each park.

The framework was tested by proposing examples of some of the key components of it. This necessitated adopting particular value positions

which have not been tested for public acceptance. Consequently, the testing of the framework can only be considered preliminary, and the conclusions must be treated cautiously. There are two reasons for the caution. First, as noted earlier, the value content of the framework requires a phase of public consultation and agreement (for example, definition of a national park and establishment of SEARCH goals). This consultation could not be part of the thesis. Second, many of the strategies identified in the framework to realise the goals and objectives for tourism require considerable time and expertise for full development (calculating a realistic economic contribution to conservation or the community, for example). This the thesis could not do. However, the assessment criteria (Strategy 1) were developed, in a preliminary way, to test the framework.

The criteria proposed in the thesis indicate the range necessary to assess a tourism proposal to ensure it meets the goals and objectives for tourism in parks. They require further development and definition. In particular, more precise ways of ranking criteria may be necessary. Some will require specific information or indicators against which a proposal can be assessed. For example, until the guidelines for the educational and interpretive component of tourism in a park are prepared (Strategy 2), the assessment criteria will be lacking necessary information. Considerable work is required to develop the various other strategies on which the criteria rely to be properly applied. A failing of other frameworks has been the amount of detailed work necessary to make them useful. The same criticism could be levelled at the assessment criteria and other strategies required by the thesis framework. However, many of the strategies are ones that a park management agency should undertake anyway. Once done, some will serve as generic guides for all tourism in parks (for example, environmental practice codes).

The framework was further tested by a case study but this proved inconclusive. The application of the framework to Maria Island National Park revealed some difficulties that require further work. Defining the SEARCH goals, although essential, proved a difficult task. Not only must they reflect a generally accepted value position on the vision for a park, but also these goals must enunciate somewhat

intangible characteristics. Further work is necessary to identify objectives, indicators, monitoring, and evaluation procedures for the SEARCH goals. Identifying potential tourism opportunities for Maria Island was only partly successful. Specific tourism expertise is necessary to properly implement the strategy. The lack of this input in the case study is obvious, but some useful guidance for developing the strategy is provided by the case study. What can be concluded is the need to draw upon relevant expertise in developing it.

Despite the mixed results in testing the framework, the need for such a tool has been clearly demonstrated. The key components of the assessment framework have been identified. Further work is needed to develop them. Public consultation and political support is required to establish the definitions, goals, and objectives on which the framework relies. This is essential to provide a sound basis for other, more technical or managerial aspects of the framework to be applied effectively. Parliament needs to amend the legislation, the park management agency needs to initiate the development of purposes and goals for each park, and for tourism in parks, and the implementation strategies need to be developed. With the framework in place, assessing appropriate tourism in national parks should be a more open, effective, and transparent task. It should contribute to effectively managing the paradoxical mandate for tourism and environmental protection in national parks.

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# Appendix 1

## Maria Island National Park - Background

The following account summarises the natural and cultural features of Maria Island National Park. This background account of the Island is drawn from the draft management plan for the park (National Parks and Wildlife Service, 1986).

### Location and Access

Maria Island lies off the south-east coast of Tasmania. The Park covers an area of 9672 ha and includes the entire island to low water mark with a marine reserve extension on the north-west side of the island.

Access is by boat or plane. The only jetty serving the island is at Darlington. There is a landing strip for light aircraft at Cape Boullanger near Darlington. The nearest departure points for the island are from Louisville (12 km), Triabunna (16 km) and Orford (16 km). At present, commercial ferry services operate from both Triabunna and Louisville taking between 25 minutes and an hour to reach the island, depending on the vessel and the seas.

### Topography

Maria Island has a bold distinctive profile which is clearly visible from the adjacent mainland of Tasmania. The island virtually consists of two islands joined by a low, narrow isthmus. The Maria Range forms the spine of the northern island, extending from Bishop and Clerk (630 m) in the north, south to Mt Maria (709 m) and ending at Perpendicular Mountain (340 m).

The eastern coastline consists of an indented line of granite headlands and cliff lines. In the north, coastal cliffs rise to 300 m at Fossil Bay. The western coastline is comprised of dune-barred lagoons behind a series of sandy beaches, interspersed with dolerite and sandstone points. The topography of the island contributes to a varied and scenic landscape which is of great appeal to visitors.

## Geology and Soils

The geology of Maria Island is complex. It reflects a succession of events including deposition, mountain building, igneous activity, erosion, glaciation, and sea level changes. Most of these have been revealed by subsequent faulting.

The cliff exposure in the Fossil Bay area is richly fossiliferous in places and is well known for the prolific occurrence of the thick-shelled mussel *Eurydesma*. Sandstone outcrops occur most notably in the vicinity of Howells Point known as the "Painted Cliffs". The presence of a variety of geological features within a small area makes Maria Island an important location for geological education and interpretation.

## Climate

Maria Island has a temperate maritime climate, with the prevailing winds from the west. The island lies in a partial rainshadow. Rain is fairly evenly distributed throughout the year but greatest in the winter months. The mean annual rainfall at Darlington is 677 mm.

Temperature figures are only available for Orford, adjacent to the island. The mean monthly maxima is 13.4°C in July and 22.7°C in February. Mean monthly minima for the same months are 2.8°C and 11.9°C respectively.

The island climate provides a relatively safe, year-round, out-door destination which is of particular advantage to school and community groups. During the summer months, the danger of wildfire is greatly increased and at times requires complete fire bans. The relatively low annual rainfall of the island necessitates careful use of water.

## Plants

Fifteen vegetation units have been recognised. The most extensive vegetation unit is open-forest of *Eucalyptus obliqua* ( $\pm$  *E. globulus* and *E. viminalis*) with a shrubby understorey. The unit occupies much of

the uplifted slopes of the north and south islands, comprising 33% of the Park's area. Open-forest containing a mixture of eucalypt species over a predominantly grassy understorey covers most of the low dolerite hills on the western part of the island (about 15% of the Park). Vegetation units associated with the Maria Range are tall woodland on talus, plateau shelf tall open-forest, tall woodland with wet sclerophyll understorey, scree slope mosaic and mountain top heath (together covering about 15% of the Park).

A total of 566 species of vascular plants have been recorded in the Park, including 90 introduced species (mainly pasture plants and weeds). The island contains 56 taxa endemic to Tasmania, 5 of which are endemic subspecies, and the remainder are endemic species. Thirty four plants which are rare in Tasmania occur on the island, 10 of these also being rare at a national level. One rare species is restricted to the central east coast and the others are more widely scattered. One species is listed as vulnerable at the state and national levels.

The island is the only known reserve for 6 species. A further 24 species are known only from 1 other reserve. Another 34 species are known to be in only 2 reserves other than Maria Island.

The importance of the Park for flora conservation means that protection of all plant communities and species is one of the major considerations of management.

## **Animals**

Prior to reservation, Maria Island had only a limited number of large mammal species and no large marsupials. The island was initially reserved in 1971 for the primary purpose of providing a refuge for endangered species. Between 1969 and 1971, the Animals and Birds Protection Board (the forerunner to the National Parks and Wildlife Service) implemented a program of fauna introduction for the purposes of both species conservation and public exhibition. In addition, a number of bird species were released.

Forester kangaroos and Cape Barren geese were introduced to the Darlington area in an effort to ensure conservation of the species

because of concern at the shrinking area of habitat available to foresters on mainland Tasmania, and the low population of geese on the Bass Strait Islands.

Goose numbers have fluctuated widely from the initial population of 36. Over recent years, the number of breeding pairs has remained constant at around 30 in pasture areas around Darlington, and 1 pair at French's Farm. Assuming pasture conditions are maintained then this situation should continue. No expansion of range is expected. In contrast, the number of non-breeding geese has fluctuated widely from less than 10 to over 200 and will continue to do so in response to seasonal conditions.

Initially 45 forester kangaroos were introduced to the island. Recent surveys indicated that by 1985 the forester population had expanded to approximately 1800 animals and occupied most suitable habitat on the island. This comprised approximately 3600 hectares of grassland and grassy woodland or 37% of the island. Some expansion of range is expected on the southern part of the island. About 30% of the population occurs at high densities on the grasslands around Darlington and Point Lesueur. In 1985 and in 1986 these high densities resulted in widespread mortality through disease among yearling forester kangaroos. The forester population is less susceptible than geese to the effects of drought because of the ability to use the bush as a food source. Of the other introduced species, the Bennetts wallaby, the bettong, and the Tasmanian native hen in particular have thrived.

From today's perspective the program of wildlife introduction (other than for purposes of species conservation) is viewed as out of keeping with the concept of a National Park and has been discontinued. It is also becoming evident that browsing by introduced macropods is causing extensive damage to the grassy forests and woodlands of the Park.

A field survey and literature review of the birds of Maria Island showed that 127 species have been recorded. The list includes the forty-spotted pardalote *Pardalotus quadragintus* which has a very restricted distribution confined largely to south-east Tasmania. It is on the list of

Australian Endangered Species. Maria Island is the only secure stronghold of this species. The latest estimate is that the Park has a breeding population of approximately 850 pairs. They occur throughout the south island and along the western lowlands of the north island.

The "vulnerable" swift parrot *Lathamus discolor* occurs on Maria Island. An estimated 5% of the population breeds there. The parrot nests in hollows of old growth trees. Nesting has been observed on skipping ridge and the lower western slopes of Mt Maria. The swift parrot predominantly feeds on nectar from blue gum *Eucalyptus globulus* flowers. Blue gum is widespread on the Island in grassy and shrubby dry sclerophyll forests.

The waters of Maria Island contain a rich marine fauna representative of a variety of Tasmanian east coast habitats. For this reason, a stretch of the coastal waters around the north western shores of the Island has been declared a marine extension of the Park.

Some faunal survey work remains to be carried out, including completion of a small mammal inventory. Annual monitoring of Cape Barren geese is undertaken by Parks, and Wildlife Service staff and regular estimates are made of forester kangaroo populations. Since these animals were introduced, fears for the safety of the species have lessened. The island, however, remains an important refuge and, particularly with respect to the geese and native hen populations, provides a convenient area for study since it contains large accessible populations of known age.

### Aboriginal Heritage

Maria Island has a long history of people using its many natural resources. The activities of different groups of people from Aboriginal gatherer-hunters through periods of European exploration, colonisation and industry have all made an impact on the natural environment to create a rich and diverse cultural landscape.

European knowledge of human history on Maria Island, prior to invasion, is restricted to a combination of historical records and

archaeological investigation of the sites created by thousands of years of Aboriginal occupation and use.

While documentation of Tasmanian Aborigines culture and history is generally poor, the historical records relating to the *Tyreddeme*, the group occupying Maria Island at the time of colonisation, offer some of the most detailed accounts of Aboriginal life at this time. This is primarily due to the nature and timing of initial contact between early explorers and Aborigines in this part of the state. Archaeological research has added to knowledge of Aboriginal culture prior to invasion. There is now evidence which shows that Aboriginal people have lived in Tasmania continuously from at least 37,000 years ago, spanning the coldest periods of human history. Tasmanian Aboriginal people appear to have included the east coast of Tasmania in their territory from about 9,000 years ago.

Offshore islands, such as Maria, are very important to people whose economy is focussed on marine resources as they offer increased coastal areas from which to extract these resources. The Oyster Bay Tribe was one such group. The *Tyreddeme* expanded their coastal territory by travelling on canoes, constructed from rushes, between Tasmania and Maria Island.

Although Aboriginal people did not occupy Maria Island on a permanent basis, they lived there from time to time and carried out a variety of social activities. The *Tyreddeme* built huts, buried their dead and gathered a variety of food sources from the island.

The importance of shellfish in the diet of the *Tyreddeme* can be seen in the predominance of Aboriginal shell middens around the coast of Maria Island. These middens were noted by early explorers and have survived to the present day, in spite of the widespread destruction of many such sites for use in early European building. The hinterland of the island provided food sources in the form of vegetable foods and game. Hunters would regularly burn thick vegetation to make it easier to travel through and to encourage new growth to attract game. The long term effects of this practice can be seen in the presence of open woodland areas on the western side of the island.



Maria Island is rich in a variety of resources, in addition to the food sources, which were used by Aboriginal people. Ochre was an important part of Aboriginal ritual prior to invasion, most obviously used in hair decoration and other body adornment, and was a valuable trade item. Ochre from Bloodstone Point was a valuable resource used and traded by the *Tyreddeme*. Similarly, shells used for making intricate necklaces were gathered and traded.

The remains of these activities are present today in a variety of sites. The archaeological value of these sites have not yet been explored in any detail by archaeologists. They do, however, have great potential to answer a number of questions about past Aboriginal adaptation and island use.

The Aboriginal sites and landscapes of Maria Island have a strong and continuing significance to the Tasmanian Aboriginal community. There is potential for the Tasmanian Aboriginal community to promote and interpret these sites to the wider community and provide greater understanding of Aboriginal culture on Maria Island.

### **European Heritage**

The history of European exploration and development of Maria Island is well documented. The island was first noted by Abel Tasman in 1642 and subsequently visited by a number of explorers including du Fresne in 1771, Furneaux in 1773, Cox in 1789, Baudin in 1802 and Kelly in 1816. Whalers and sealers had reached the island by the beginning of the 19th century.

At Darlington and Point Lesueur in particular, a variety of buildings, structures and plantings of exotic trees mark the activities of the years 1825-1930. There have been a number of different periods of activity on the island and remains from each period contribute to the present Park environment.

In the 1820's, a penal settlement was established on the northern part of Maria Island at Darlington. The only remaining buildings of the first

convict period are the Penitentiary and the Commissariat Store. The Penitentiary overlooked a considerable factory complex, the remains of which have some importance as an early industrial site. On the hillside to the west of Darlington, the Commandant, Major T. D. Lord, constructed his own residence, the footings of which are still visible. Areas of land were cleared for cultivation at this time, and brick making, lime making, and sandstone quarrying began. After the abandonment of the settlement in 1832, the buildings were left to pastoral lessees, and by 1841 some buildings had gone, and most were in poor repair.

The Convict Station at Darlington was reopened in 1842 and at times during this period over 600 convicts lived on the island. The original buildings were generally re-used but a major building program was initiated, and most of the structures on the island date from this period of activity. The northern end of the island was developed for farming.

The major development away from Darlington was the probation station at Point Lesueur (Long Point). This was a substantial and largely independent settlement, although smaller than Darlington itself. Its location was determined by the availability of good farm land. To reach the station a road was built from Darlington. The buildings were of poorer quality than those at Darlington, being either timber, or constructed of locally produced brick. Maria Island was entirely abandoned as a probation station by 1850, and thereafter the island was leased to a succession of pastoralists. Once abandoned, the buildings deteriorated rapidly.

In 1884 Diego Bernacchi arrived and his influence and enthusiasm dominated the island for the next 45 years. He was responsible for a variety of commercial developments ranging from silk making to cement production. Between 1885 and 1888 the Darlington area was changed from the remains of a prison compound to an open settlement very similar to the present day. The settlement was surrounded by cultivated areas, with enclosed gardens planted around some of the houses. In keeping with Bernacchi's vision of Maria Island as an island paradise, the Grand Hotel was built on the hillside behind Bernacchi's house. This was intended to be a health resort on the lines of the

famous spa hotels of Europe. The Coffee Palace was built in the valley below in 1888 to provide accommodation and refreshment.

Bernacchi developed the Cement Works, serviced by a tramway to the jetty. The northern end of the island was used for agricultural purposes, with two small vineyards planted on the north facing slopes. South of Darlington, the Oast House was used during this period for the pressing of grapes.

During the 1890's the depression dampened the enthusiasm of Diego Bernacchi. The island never flourished as envisaged and, in 1896, operations effectively ceased on the island. Maria Island again reverted to a quiet existence. The island was opened to selectors, and several families took up land.

The National Portland Cement Company was formed in 1920, with Bernacchi's involvement, to develop cement works on Maria. A massive industrial complex, technologically in advance of any other in the southern hemisphere, was opened in 1924. The Darlington settlement was again re-used. Darlington received an electrical supply for the first time and a reticulated water supply was installed. However, by 1927, the Company was experiencing trading difficulties and cement production had ceased by 1930.

After closure of the cement works, only a few families stayed on to operate the pastoral activities. Grazing continued as the primary activity on the island with occasional visits by tourists to enjoy the peaceful atmosphere.

In 1962, concerned at the loss of dry forest habitat through agricultural clearing, the Animals and Birds Protection Board recommended that Maria Island be proclaimed a reserve for the conservation of endangered animal species. Acquisition of freehold land by the Government commenced in 1965 and in 1968 the first Ranger was appointed. At this time the program of introduction of native animals to the island began. In 1971, Maria Island was declared a Sanctuary under the Animals and Birds Protection Board and in the following year it was proclaimed a State Reserve under the management of the

then National Parks and Wildlife Service. The park is now managed by the Parks and Wildlife Service of the Department of Environment and Land Management.

Conservation works have consisted of general repairs and repainting of most buildings with some adaptation for management use. In 1971 and 1977 parts of the remainder of the National Portland Cement Company works were demolished for safety reasons. During the periods of European activity, a variety of exotic trees and plants were brought to the island for landscaping, windbreaks, orchards and house gardens. These now form an important part of the landscape of Darlington, giving a sense of time and scale as well as a feeling of protection and seclusion. Cleared grassy areas retain something of a settled pastoral atmosphere.

A number of shipwrecks are known to lie off the coast. The archaeological significance of these shipwreck sites has not yet been determined.

### Visitors

The popularity of the island for recreation and education rose significantly after it was reserved. Darlington became the Park management centre and visitors camped in the Bernacchi's Creek valley or used various historic buildings. Most visitors disembark at Darlington but visitors on private boats disembark at a variety of places. Many visitors, especially those on day trips, are largely unaware of many of the biological values of the Park, their enjoyment being derived more from the peaceful island atmosphere and sunny coastal scenery, the sense of history, and interesting and accessible wildlife.

There was a large growth in visitation to the Park between the early 1970s and the mid 1980s. Visitor numbers declined rapidly in the mid 1980s, mostly attributable to a decline in visits by school groups. In 1986-86, student visits made up 53% of the total, declining to 26% in 1992-93. Park records indicate that the annual number of visitors remained fairly flat between 1984-85 and 1989-90 followed by a 39% growth in visitation between 1989-90 and 1992-93. Visitor numbers

reached 15000 in 1992-93. The number of day visitors has increased markedly since the early 1980s, possibly due to the establishment of the Louisville resort. In 1992-93 day visitors outnumbered overnight visitors for the first time. The Tasmanian Visitor Survey (1992) indicated that 8360 interstate tourists visited Maria Island in 1992, which suggests that just over half of the visitors are from interstate.

Generally the Park receives four times the number of visitors during December, January, and February that it does in June, July, and August. In January, indoor accommodation and campground space at Darlington, the main visitor centre, are often fully occupied. Up to 200 day visitors may arrive daily during this period. Visiting school groups of up to 100 students contribute to relatively high overnight visitor levels during Spring and Autumn and there is always a small number of overnight visitors taking advantage of the relatively mild winter climate.

Although information on the types of visitors to the Park is incomplete, a number of broad groups are recognisable. These are:-

day visitors:                      predominantly families and friends but including some coach tour passengers and self-drive tourists

overnight visitors:              predominantly families and friends during summer and holidays but mainly school and community groups during other periods. A small number of commercial camping tours also occasionally visit.

As well as these visitors, who disembark at Darlington, there are:

private boating parties:      often anchor in secluded bays around the coast and use the island as a base for fishing and other water-based activities.

Maria Island has always been popular with school and community groups, being used for educational and "social interaction" purposes.

However, there has been a decline in use by school groups. In 1986-87, 53% of all visitors were students, but this declined to 26% by 1992-93.

Length of stay in the Park depends on the type of visitor. Because of the limitations imposed by ferry schedules, day visitors generally spend only a few hours on the island in the middle of the day. At most, this is time for a brief inspection of Darlington and for short walks in the immediate environs. On the other hand, school and community groups stay for an average of about 4-5 days while the majority of other overnight visitors stay for between 2-3 days. Although most nights are spent at Darlington, at the campground or in historic building accommodation, many parties spend at least one night in the southern part of the island at either the French's Farm or Encampment Cove campgrounds. Little is known about the length of stay of boating parties whose favourite anchorage is Encampment ("Camping") Cove, as well as other protected spots including Whalers Cove and Trigonía Corner. There is evidence of regular camping in places other than designated campgrounds.

Most people who stay at Darlington for several days undertake walks to some or all of the following destinations: the Fossil Cliffs, Bishop and Clerk, the Painted Cliffs, Mt Maria and the Chinamans Bay/Point Lesueur area. Darlington and the surrounding beaches, grasslands and light bush provide an ideal safe environment for children, and a pleasant environment for less active people. Open forest on the western slopes and in the south of the Park allows relatively easy access by foot to all but the steeper eastern slopes of the island. Further afield there is scope for rock climbing, caving (Kiernan 1973) and challenging walks on the East Shelf.

Visitors using the southern campgrounds as a base are able to explore the Point Lesueur and isthmus area and, depending on length of stay, may visit Robey's Farm or Haunted Bay. The interesting shoreline of Riedle Bay from Elephant Bight to Cape des Tombeaux is an increasingly popular destination and a rough travel route behind the coast has formed through frequent use. In addition, the coastal waters are favoured by diving parties because of their rich diversity of plant and animal life (Edgar 1981).

The only survey of the attitudes of visitors to Maria Island (carried out in January 1981) indicated that both day and overnight visitors most appreciated the peace and quiet and non-commercial atmosphere of the Park. Of the visitors with other preferences, day visitors showed a greater appreciation of the history of the Park and were less appreciative of the native flora and fauna than overnight visitors. This survey supports the general observations of the Park staff that visitors particularly appreciate being on an island: experiencing a short boat trip followed by a period of isolation and escape from the rest of society. This experience is greatly enhanced by the physical beauty of the island, encompassing mountains, beaches and forests, the abundance of native animals, and the presence of a deserted, largely intact historic township, free of the usual commercial intrusions.

### **Services and Facilities**

Visitor services and facilities are located principally in Darlington and provide for the basic needs of visitors. No private vehicles are allowed on the Island and no transport is available within the Park. There are no shops. Once on the island, visitors are expected to be self-sufficient for the duration of their stay.

All management roads and fire trails are open to walkers. In addition, there are marked trails up Bishop and Clerk and Mt Maria which give inland access for walkers.

In Darlington the water supply points, toilets and shelter are shared by all visitors. There are no showers or hot water. Water is a major constraint on future expansion of overnight visitation at Darlington. Given the existing supply and assuming a conventional rate of water use, it has been estimated that the maximum number of overnight visitors that Darlington can support is 330. Because of their much lower water requirement, the number of day visitors to the site is not so critical.

Facilities for day visitors are provided near the beach at Darlington including a picnic shelter with gas barbecues. There are three public

toilet blocks in the Darlington area near the jetty, in the historic precinct and adjacent to the picnic shelter.

The three campgrounds on the island are located at Darlington, French's Farm and Encampment Cove. The Darlington campground has a capacity of 50 sites being designed for about 230 people. This is the most heavily used campground and its condition has deteriorated seriously. The campground at French's Farm occupies existing cleared paddocks around the old farmhouse. Fireplaces and pit toilet facilities are provided and limited fresh tank water is available at the farmhouse. Nearby there is a shearing shed which can be used for emergency shelter. The Encampment Cove campground consists of 12 camping sites spread around the shore of the cove with basic barbecue facilities and a pit toilet. It is especially popular with boating parties. A shelter has been constructed with a small water tank attached.

Since reservation of the island, indoor accommodation for visitors has been made available in a variety of historic buildings in Darlington. The only building presently in such use is the Penitentiary which can accommodate up to 60 people and is divided into 6 rooms each containing bunks, tables, benches and a wood heater. No lighting or special cooking facilities are provided.

Day to day management of the Park is carried out by Park rangers and their families who are the only permanent inhabitants of the island. Management facilities include 4WD transport, earth-moving machinery and fire-fighting equipment. The energy sources for the Park are diesel for the generation of electricity and running of machinery (both for management purposes only), gas for some cooking, wood for cooking and heating using open fires and slow combustion stoves, and petrol or diesel for transport (again for management purposes only).

### **Environmental Degradation**

The island environment has been modified and degraded in a number of ways since the arrival of Europeans. Clearing of vegetation and subsequent settlement and grazing have led to the introduction of



exotic species, soil erosion, degradation of water courses, simplification of plant communities and some loss of aesthetic appeal.

The mature exotic trees, gardens and pastures form part of the historic environment of the island and therefore, in restricted locations, are part of the cultural resource of the National Park. Other plants which have been incidentally introduced as a result of settlement, including canary broom (*Genista monspessulana*), horehound, thistles, gorse, ragwort and fennel are undesirable because they are liable to compete with native vegetation.

The only exotic animals on the island other than those deliberately introduced are rats, mice, cats and fallow deer. Maria Island is one of the few places in Tasmania apparently free of the fungus *Phytophthora cinnamomi*. Therefore, every care must be taken to avoid its introduction especially since the water barrier and control of vehicular access make this an attainable objective.

Erosion resulting from past clearing and grazing is a problem particularly in the Darlington area.

Of particular concern is the degradation of Bernacchi's Creek which has been of prime importance to all phases of settlement. The banks of the creek below the dam are infested with canary broom while the lower reaches of Bernacchi's Creek has been severely degraded in recent times due to pressures of the adjacent campground. In earlier years, the creek greatly enhanced the aesthetic appeal of the campground but the death of many trees, erosion of banks and water pollution now detract from this appeal.

## Appendix 2

### Potential Tourism Development Opportunities, Maria Island National Park

#### POTENTIAL OPPORTUNITY

#### DEVELOPED OPPORTUNITY

Viewing scenic locations

Provide independent or guide-led access to:

Fossil Cliffs  
Bishop and Clerk  
Mt Maria  
Reservoir  
Darlington Settlement  
Coastlines (headlands, cliffs, beaches)  
Painted cliffs  
Chinamans Bay  
Point Lesueur  
Forest landscapes  
Intimate scale landscapes

Contemplating and observing  
Park features and values

Provide independent or guide-led access to:

Scenic locations listed above  
Marine life  
Wildlife  
Vegetation  
Historic artefacts and sites  
Island setting  
Isolation  
Undeveloped character  
Geological features (Fossil cliffs, Painted Cliffs)

Learning about human history

Display of historic artefacts  
Independent or guide-led interpretive historic walks  
Brochures on historic features  
Signs on historic features  
Independent or guide-led historical studies

Learning about natural history

Independent or guide-led nature study  
Independent or guide-led botanical study  
Independent or guide-led earth science study  
Independent or guide-led bird watching  
Independent or guide-led wildlife studies

Appendix 2 (cont)
Potential Tourism Development Opportunities
Maria Island National Park

POTENTIAL OPPORTUNITY	DEVELOPED OPPORTUNITY
Participating in conservation projects	Work on heritage conservation Work on wildlife conservation Work on botanical surveys and research Work on weed and feral animal eradication Work on rehabilitation and revegetation Survey visitors
Relaxing in historic locations	Seating in historic locations Accommodation in historic locations
Relaxing in quiet and scenic locations	Seating in quiet and scenic locations Accommodation in quiet and scenic locations Independent or guide led meditation Sunbaking
Recreating in natural or historic location	Independent or guide-led photography Independent or guide-led artistic pursuits Independent or guide-led caving Independent or guide-led climbing and abseiling Independent or guide-led diving Swimming Running and orienteering Independent or catered picnicking Independent or guide-led camping Independent or guide-led cycling Independent or guide-led bushwalking Independent or guide-led boating